

The Nation.

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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK.....	305
EDITORIAL ARTICLES:	
Retrospect and Prospect.....	308
Panzer Capital.....	308
The English View.....	309
An Experiment in Railroad Control.....	309
SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:	
The American Oriental Society.....	370
The Marquis of Londonderry in Belfast.....	371
George Sand in Italy.....	372
CORRESPONDENCE:	
Fly's American Taxation.....	374
German Railways Service.....	374
Purity in Politics.....	375
Foreign Allegiance of Foreign Goods.....	375
Confirmation.....	375
Teacher and Community.....	375
The Pratt Free Library.....	376
Translation at Sight.....	376
John Wise of Ipswich.....	376
Concerning Certain Epigrams.....	376
NOTES.....	376
REVIEWS:	
The Comte de Paris's History of the Civil War.....	379
Some Holiday Books.....	380
Children's Books.....	381
Denkmäler des klassischen Altertums.....	382
The Complete Angler.....	383
Leibnitz's New Essays Concerning the Human Understanding.....	383
BOOKS OF THE WEEK.....	384

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The Nation.

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The Week.

WHEN President Cleveland sent his message to Congress last December, his supporters throughout the Northern States, while applauding his courage and feeling that he had rendered the country a great service by presenting a new and living issue for parties to divide upon, felt also that he had sacrificed himself to a principle, and that the first battle in the issue he presented would inevitably be lost. Well, the first battle has been lost, by a narrow vote. What follows? The world moves, either forward or backward; it does not stand still. The victors in Tuesday's contest can no more stand still than the vanquished. The responsibility for the national finances will, after the 4th of March next, rest with the Republican party. The surplus will stare Mr. Harrison in the face, just as it now stares Mr. Cleveland. It must be got rid of, either by reduced taxation or by extravagant appropriations. The smallness of the Republican majority forbids that the latter policy should be adopted. It will not be safe to inaugurate a system of national profligacy in order to empty the Treasury. As little will it be safe to repeal the whiskey tax in order to maintain imposts on the necessities of life. The masses have got an inkling for the first time that the tariff is a tax on consumption, and therefore an undue and unjust burden upon labor. They are not likely to forget anything that they have learned in this campaign of education. The Republican leaders, those who in former years have denounced the present exorbitant tariff and tried to bring it within the measure of decency, will now be put to it to stem the rising tide which calls for reform in our system of national taxation—a tide whose impulses are not unfelt in their own ranks. We will not anticipate the outbreak of tariff reform in Republican councils, but we do not see how it can be avoided. But whether it comes in that quarter sooner or later, this great battle, on an entirely new issue, which so narrowly escaped being a victory, will go on. An audience has been secured at last for the principle that every man has the right to the fruits of his own labor, without deduction for the recompense of the labor or capital of others. Nobody who took part in this first skirmish will lay down his arms till victory is won.

New Jersey shows an increased plurality for Cleveland over 1884. Connecticut has again been carried for Cleveland, as in 1884, though by a reduced plurality. The result in these two States shows that the "tariff scare" did not work in the great manufacturing strongholds. The local election in Newark a few weeks ago indicated that the laboring men had studied this question, and could not be fooled by the advocates of the high tariff; the result of the election in

New Jersey and Connecticut demonstrates the correctness of this inference. For many years New York has gone Democratic in every Presidential election when New Jersey and Connecticut were carried by that party. Upon an issue affecting all three States so evenly as that of tariff reform, one would have expected a similar concurrence this year. The returns from those election districts which include the great manufacturing industries in this State show that the tariff scare did not work any better in those districts than in Newark, or Paterson, or New Haven, or Hartford. It is impossible to resist the conviction that, if the sole issue presented in this State on Tuesday had been the tariff, Mr. Cleveland would have carried New York, as he did New Jersey and Connecticut. It is unnecessary to go beyond the city of Brooklyn to find the proof that Mr. Cleveland was beaten in the State of New York, not because a majority of the voters condemn his policy on tariff reform, but because a majority of the voters would not sustain for the Presidency a party which nominated a man like David B. Hill for Governor.

Now that the political campaign is ended, we can take an unbiased look at the Treasury surplus. On October 30 it amounted to \$74,491,969, having been reduced by bond purchases during the month about \$22,000,000, of which a large sum went for premiums. The problem which confronted the nation fourteen months ago when the last 3 per cents were called in, is still before us, pressing for solution. Whether the one party or the other controls the next Congress, or whether the two Houses remain as now under the control of different parties, the surplus is there, growing and menacing the country in various ways. It menaces all business interests unless it is shovelled out in some way. It menaces all social interests however it may be poured out. If spent for extravagance, it demoralizes. If spent for premiums on bonds, it puts in the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury a power which no human being ought ever to exercise—the power to make money scarce or plenty over the whole country and even in foreign countries. Up to this time nothing has been done to put away this evil, to relieve this strain, to banish this temptation. Let us hope that now, the political strife being over, steps may be forthwith taken to reduce the surplus in an honest way, and to remove the blackest cloud on the horizon of our daily life.

There is every reason for believing that the alleged use of large sums of money indeciding Tuesday's election will lend a powerful aid to the agitation in favor of ballot reform. If we had a perfectly secret ballot, as we ought to have, all attempts at bribery would cease as quickly and completely in this country as they did in England when the English Ballot Act went into effect there. Great as are the offences against an honest ballot committed here, they have never reached

the openness, variety, and extent in which they existed in England before the enactment of the new law. While the provisions of that law requiring the publication after election of sworn statements of all expenditures by candidates or their agents, and regulating also the keeping of such expenditures within fixed limits, had much to do with restricting the use of money in elections, it is the unanimous opinion of all authorities that the mere requirement of secrecy in the ballot has done more than all else to stamp bribing, since no man is willing to lose money in bribing a voter whom he cannot follow to the polls, lesser if he votes in accordance with the bribe.

At the National Republican Convention there was a distinct pledge made by the Indiana delegation that, if Harrison were elected, they would not ask for a cent of money from other States. Give us the candidate, they said, and we will take care of Indiana ourselves. They were taken at their word. They got the candidate, and what has happened since? In a pecuniary sense, the question for Republicans is this. In a much larger sense it possesses a more widespread interest, for it is now plain that the Republicans of Indiana have "gone back on" their promise to ask no money from the National Committee. This is shown by the text of the letter addressed by William W. Dudley to the chairman of the Republican County Committees in Indiana, which, with amazing effrontery, outlined a scheme for buying the State of Indiana for the Republican ticket. To comprehend the significance of the letter it is necessary to know something of its writer. Col. Dudley has for many years been one of the most prominent Republicans in Indiana, and has been, by the appointment of Republican Presidents, Member of the United States District Court in the Southern Commission of Pensions at Washington. He has been Treasurer of the Republican National Committee during the two campaigns, and the special friend and personal representative upon that Committee of Gen. Harrison, who desired his election as Chairman of the

But this is not all. Col. Dudley was one of the men who managed the Republican campaign for the Indiana election of October, 1880, when the State was bought outright for the Republican party. This was the campaign of which Mr. W. P. Fishback, a leading lawyer of Indianapolis, a former partner of Gen. Harrison, and a life-long Republican, said, in an open letter to Mr. Peelle, a Republican Congressman, published five years ago and never questioned: "Men like Dorsey will come to Indiana again, as they came in 1880, and disburse \$100,000 in the Dennis House parlor, to be used in buying votes, hiring repeaters, bribing election officers to stuff ballot-boxes and falsify election returns. You know that there are men high in office because they commit at such crimes, and it is no secret that men honored by the

party are so honored mainly because they aided the escape of arrested felons, who were hired to come from other States to violate the election laws of Indiana." This, too, was the campaign the result of which was celebrated by that famous banquet given at Delmonico's by most reputable citizens of the metropolis in honor of that notorious rascal, Stephen W. Dorsey, Secretary of the Republican National Committee, who had superintended the work of buying the State—a banquet at which the man who had been elected Vice-President by virtue of the Indiana corruption, and who afterwards became President, cynically confessed that "Indiana was really a Democratic State," and had been made Republican by the use of "a great deal of" what he euphemistically called "soap." This, too, was the campaign Col. Dudley's own share in which was rewarded by Garfield with the appointment of Commissioner of Pensions, the thoroughly efficient incumbent being dismissed in the middle of his term to make place for him. Indeed, it was Col. Dudley among others whom Mr. Fishback had in mind when he said that "there are men [in 1883] high in office because they connive at such crimes."

Among the dregs and offscourings of the campaign there remains a Republican document entitled "An Open Letter to Working-men," by Nathaniel McKay, illustrated by a series of cuts that were used by the protectionists in England in 1846 or thereabouts, before that country was emancipated from such folly. "The majority of the illustrations used in this pamphlet can be seen at Mr. McKay's office, 15 Whitehall Street, New York," is the legend at the top of the title-page. For our part, we should consider the man who would take the trouble to reproduce the pictures, with a view to influencing votes for protection here, a greater curiosity than any illustration in the pamphlet. By what mental process Mr. McKay was led to suppose that the condition of a chain-maker in England forty or fifty years ago, when he was taxed on his bread for the benefit of the landowners, could be made useful to those who are taxing the laboring man here on his clothing for the benefit of wool-growers and others, is a mystery that puzzles us not a little. The picture represents a man and his wife both working at the forge, both barefooted, ragged, and unkempt, with two ragged and emaciated children in the same room. What in the world has this to do with the manufacture of chains in the United States in the year 1888? How could these poor creatures, even if they were now alive, compete with the workmen in Cooper, Hewitt & Co.'s mills at Trenton, for instance, where chains are turned out by machinery by the yard, the rod, and the mile? How can anybody who makes chains by hand, fashioning each link out of a bar of iron by hammering, just as horse-nails were made by blacksmiths forty years ago—how can any such workman, if there be any such still living in England or anywhere, reduce the wages of chain-makers here who can turn out forty links while the hand-worker is turning out one? The idea is grotesque, but not so grotesque as Mr. Mc-

Kay's invitation to the public to come and see the original picture at his office.

"An English Invasion" is the title of a Republican campaign document issued at the office of the Chicago *Inter-Ocean* a few days ago. This is not an invasion with iron-clads, as the startled reader might imagine from a hasty glance, but with iron castings. It is affirmed in the document that the Denver City Cable Railroad Company invited bids for 5,000 tons of iron castings for their plant, and that proposals were received from four Chicago firms and from St. Louis, Cincinnati, Kansas City, Belleville, Ill., Birmingham, Ala., and Omaha, and also from one English firm; and that the English bid was the lowest, notwithstanding the fact that they have to deliver the castings in Denver and pay a duty of 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound (\$28 per ton), which the *Inter-Ocean* says is equivalent, on this class of goods, to 40 per cent. ad valorem. Of course the English concern got the contract, and of course, when the contract is fulfilled, there will be added to Uncle Sam's menacing surplus the sum of \$140,000 in the way of duties on 5,000 tons of castings. The *Inter-Ocean* does not allude to this feature of the affair, but sends up a great wail about the loss suffered by this country because of English cheap iron. "It means," says the document, "the loss of over 10,000 tons of ore to American consumption, and of over 10,000 tons of fuel." Other losses are mentioned, but no gains are acknowledged, although it is manifest that we shall gain 5,000 tons of castings which will necessarily be paid for by the proceeds of American labor of some kind.

Now glance for one moment at the false statement that this Denver transaction causes a loss of 10,000 tons of American ore and 10,000 tons of American fuel. The truth is, that all the ore and all the fuel are saved and not a ton lost. We have the castings, and the ore and the fuel besides, and of course the ore and the fuel will come in play in good time. When the writer of this document said that we had lost ore and fuel by buying castings in England, he meant that we had postponed for a time the using of certain natural resources which, although extensive, are of limited quantity, and when once used can never be replaced. This is the exact truth, but if he had put it in this way, instead of asserting that we had lost 10,000 tons of each of those valuable materials, his document would have been useless for catching the votes of the unwary. Then he goes on to ask, "What would be the result to American foundrymen if the duty was still further reduced?" This question might better be put to the Republicans of the Senate than to the supporters of the Mills bill, for the latter makes no change in the duty on iron castings, while the Senate bill reduces it from 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ cent to 1-2-10 cent per pound. This is not a large reduction, but is \$1.12 per ton, and, on the Denver contract would amount to \$5,600. For our own part, we discredit the whole story from beginning to end, for the reason that our entire importations of iron castings

in 1887 under the 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ cent duty were only \$28,154, and this included andirons, sad irons, tailors' irons, and hatters' irons. If the foundrymen of Chicago cannot compete with English foundrymen at Denver, when the latter are handicapped with a duty of \$28 per ton and five or six thousand miles of transportation besides, they are greater slovens than we have taken them for.

Several Republican newspapers have been keeping the following apothegm from the mouth of Gen. Harrison standing in their columns, viz.:

"No man's wages should be so low that he cannot make provision in his days of vigor for the incapacity of accident or the feebleness of old age."

Our first objection to this is, that the sentiment is stolen from Gov. David B. Hill of New York without credit. Gov. Hill first promulgated it to an astonished public at a county fair in western New York (Dunkirk, we believe). He began by saying that the great cause of discontent was poverty. From this bold preamble he reasoned that every man ought to have wages sufficient to provide a comfortable support for his family, and to afford him reasonable time for recreation and religious worship, and to make provision for old age. We have admired this sentiment for about three years—we believe it was three years ago that Gov. Hill first propounded it. We have suggested sundry amendments and improvements from time to time, which, it seems, have not attracted Gen. Harrison's attention. We have thought that every man's wages should be high enough to enable him to dress respectably, and go to the theatre occasionally, and visit the seashore or the mountains now and then, and to have a glass of light, wholesome wine on his table after his day's work. Everybody must admit that these things would do away with discontent, promote social order, and make America the happiest land that the sun shines upon. Why did Gen. Harrison restrict the wage-worker to the meagre bill of fare prescribed in the foregoing quotation?

Mr. William W. Justice of Philadelphia objects to our remarks upon his campaign document entitled "A Word to Farmers," in which he reminded them of the benefits that the tariff on wheat and flour confers upon them, by preventing the importation of grain from Russia and India "whenever the price here is higher than in Europe." We remarked upon this singular document that during a period of thirty-eight years our exports of wheat and flour had been growing continually, with some variations depending upon the state of the harvests, and that they had risen from a total value of \$7,742,315 in the year 1850 to \$142,666,563 in 1887. And then we asked what likelihood there was that we should ever be importing wheat from Russia and India, so that the farmer could have his innings at the game of grab at which he has been cheated ever since protective tariffs began in this country. Mr. Justice replies that "at this present moment, were it not for the United States customs tariff of 20

cents per bushel on wheat and 20 per cent. ad valorem on flour, millions of bushels of foreign wheat would unquestionably now be under contract for shipment from European ports to the United States, and large quantities of American flour, which have been exported from America to foreign countries for a market, could be brought back to America, after paying a reasonable ocean freight, and sold at a large profit in America."

Mr. Justice is altogether wrong in his calculations. In the first place, American flour reimported in the original packages is not subject to duty. Consequently there is no obstacle to the reimportation of "large quantities of American flour." But it does not come. On the contrary, there was exported from our Atlantic ports in the week ending October 27 (the last week for which we have official returns) 197,714 barrels of flour (of which 114,449 went to Great Britain) and 53,144 bushels of wheat, all of which, except 2,000 bushels, went to the United Kingdom. Now, how does this come about? By referring to the quotations in Liverpool and New York respectively, we find that the best American wheat is quoted in the former market at 43s. 9d. per quarter, which is equivalent to about \$1.30 per bushel, while the same article is quoted in the latter at \$1.09½ per bushel. Mr. Justice tells us that it does not cost over 6 cents a bushel for freight between Liverpool and New York. Add 6 cents to the New York price and we have \$1.15½, which leaves an abundant margin for all other expenses and risk. This would seem to account for the fact, otherwise unintelligible, that we are still exporting some wheat and flour, although prices at Chicago are actually higher than at New York, and much too high to warrant shipments from that market to this. The Chicago prices are purely speculative, and they have no more relation to the permanent export trade than "Old Hatch's" September wheat corner had to the permanent domestic trade.

Mr. Theo. Mayor, a well-known citizen of Berkshire, Tioga County, New York, and an old and earnest Republican, has published in the Owego *Gazette* a letter to his brother farmers, containing transcripts of accounts of the farm which he has worked for thirty-four years. We have not room for Mr. Mayor's detailed figures, but we give a summary of his conclusions, drawn from comparison of the prices of produce in those years which, he says, "according to our high 'protection' friends, were years of starvation prices," with the pampered "home market" years of 1879-87. Premising that, "of the dairy produce, I wish to say in those times, as a general rule, summer butter was not the article manufactured now, as we did not use ice or the present improved dairy methods, and you found very few fine summer firkins; at present, such butter would sell for grease," Mr. Mayor says—

"Now, brother farmers, I ask you, Are these starvation prices, or much lower than those you receive at the present time? But you will perceive at once that corn, wheat, wool, cattle, and pork brought then a better price than we receive now; butter, oats, and beef very much

the same. Ten cents per pound of tariff protection on wool ought to have raised it in latter years to 43, 45, or 46 cents, according to the prices I received under no protection, but you have only received 25, 28, and 30 cents, or on the average from 5 to 8 cents less than I did from 1855 to 1858. Wheat has been quoted within two years at 70 cents per bushel, shell corn at 50 cents, pork 5 cents per pound, to say nothing about our taxes, which have quadrupled since 1860."

This address, made to farmers in the county paper of an agricultural community, appeals for verification to their own experience as students of "markets" and not of "maxims."

We had no idea that Friends Joseph Wharton and Isaac H. Clothier of Philadelphia could be so wily and worldly wise as they have shown themselves in "A Few Earnest Words to Friends" (Quakers), put out in a fly leaf just before the election. They were troubled, first of all, by the conduct of the Administration towards the Indians. They were troubled, secondly, by the growing "fixed and systematic oppression" of the colored people at the South. They were troubled, thirdly, by the way "the Administration party works most harmoniously with the whiskey Trusts and drinking saloons." But we knew well that their greatest trouble was the fourth, namely, Cleveland's "policy of tariff destruction," which, however, we were shocked to learn, is merely a dodge to divert attention from the "ultimate purpose" of the Democrats "of placing the South, with all its barbarisms, once more in full control of the national Government." Sly follows, the Democrats, but not sly enough to hide their real designs from Friends Wharton and Clothier. What pained us most in the document, however, was the remedy for these terrible evils and dangers. It is neither more nor less than that the Friends should "hold for a time their prohibition views in abeyance," as, "by voting for the Republican candidates, [they] simply relegate to the future a question which is not now before us, while assisting by their votes in the advancement of several concerns which are held dear by Friends, and in preventing the overthrow of that beneficent system of protection to home industry," etc., etc. O Joseph, Joseph, O Isaac, Isaac, if the liquor question was not before you, where was it? What had become of the drunkards? And what about the free-whiskey plank in the platform?

"It is the last straw that breaks the camel's back." Such must have been the exclamation of Mr. John D. Long when he received the letter of Prof. Bowen of Harvard in reply to his Long's request that Prof. Bowen would write a letter to be read at the Republican meeting in Cambridge on Friday. Prof. Bowen is the sole representative, among American college professors and ex professors of political economy, of the doctrine of protection—one of the very few who have any toleration for it. His work entitled "American Political Economy" does favor protection of the kind advocated by Henry Clay half a century ago, this being, as has been repeatedly shown in this campaign, a very different thing from that advocated by

the Republican party to day. Consequently, Prof. Bowen has been looked up to as a sort of monument, almost a solitary one, for everything labelled "protection." Mr. Long must have been nearly stunned when he received Prof. Bowen's letter, telling him that the present tariff is tyranny and not protection, that it is crushing our native industries, and taxing the necessities of life to such a degree that it drives our native workmen into riotous attempts to raise the rate of wages upon which they can no longer subsist. Mr. Long's cup must have been full when he received this letter, and so, we judge, was the *Tribune*—but although this veracious paper had a telegram nearly a column long concerning the Cambridge meeting at which Prof. Bowen's letter was to have been read it made no mention of it.

The Republican party, which a few years ago was denouncing Gen. Butler as a disreputable politician, whose support was a thing to be dreaded by any party, has sunk so low that it implored his aid, and sent him to Michigan to preach the high-tariff doctrine in the hope of preventing that State from going for tariff reform. The Democratic papers simply reprinted passages from his own speeches of a few years ago as, for instance, this from a speech in 1882:

"I am one of the largest woollen manufacturers in the United States. I do not say this boastfully, but to show that I am not selfish in the views I hold. The cloth I wear (placing his hand on his coat sleeve) is of my own manufacture, and I notice several gentlemen around me who wear the same. On these goods there is a tariff of 40 per cent. Republican orators and newspapers tell you this tariff is to protect the mill-laborers. Twenty per cent. will pay our entire labor expenses. What do you suppose becomes of the other 40 per cent? These same Republican orators and newspapers tell you it goes into the United States Treasury. Not a dollar reaches there. Every cent goes into my pocket. (Slapping his hand on his pocket vigorously to give emphasis to his words!) And every one of you is paying this bounty to the woollen manufacturers. *The whole tariff scheme is an imposition and a curse on the working people.*"

It is a noteworthy fact, to which we have not seen attention called, that the two great Northern gifts for the education of Southern negroes—that of the late John F. Slater of Norwich six years ago, and that of Mr. Daniel Hand of Guilford a few weeks ago—have come from the State which, in the old days, was among the slowest of the New England States in supporting the anti-slavery agitation, and stoutest in opposing the education of colored youth within her own borders. It was within the shadow of Yale College that a town meeting in New Haven decreed what would now be called a shot gun quarantine against an institution for the manual education of negro youth proposed to be established there, and it was in the old fashioned New England village of Canterbury that Miss Prudence Crandall's incendiary plot for teaching colored girls was suppressed by the joint efforts of the mob and of the officers of the law. There is a poetic justice in the fact that Connecticut, which stoned the prophets of negro education half a century ago, is now foremost in benefactions for the promotion of that object throughout the country.

RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT.

It is now eleven months since President Cleveland gave the country a live political issue to take the place of the dead and decaying controversies of the past. The issue he presented would have forced its way to the front ere long, even if Blaine had been elected instead of Cleveland four years ago. It was Mr. Cleveland's merit that he had a clear view of the future. It is statesmanship in the highest sense to plant one's party on the right side of an issue which is destined to dominate the future political life of the nation. It is Mr. Cleveland's crown of merit, more enduring and ennobling than any temporary victory, that he awakened his own party from slumber, and put before it the splendid task of emancipating American industry from its present thralldom.

The Mills bill, or any bill drawn upon similar lines, is merely a repeal of a war measure. Time and again has it been admitted by the leaders of the Republican party that the present tariff was passed to provide means for a desperate struggle now happily passed away. Time and again did they promise to repeal this war tariff and to reduce the public burdens to the measure of a peace establishment and a lightened national debt. Time and again have their more enlightened Senators demanded that those promises be fulfilled; but as years rolled on, the grip of the protected classes grew tighter and tighter. The Republican party insensibly fell under the domination of men who had become rich by an iniquitous system of taxation, like the Whig party of old. Feeble attempts were made in 1872 and in 1883 to shake off this yoke of vulgar and ill-gotten wealth, to abolish the tolls on industry, and to restore to the common people the natural right to the fruits of their own labor. For particulars, read the speeches of Senators Sherman and Allison, not to mention the names of Garfield, Grant, Arthur, Folger, McCulloch, Hale, Ingalls, Logan, and other living and dead statesmen who have held the highest positions in the councils of the party and the nation. Time would fail us to recount them all.

There came a change in the ideas controlling the Republican party. We were told that a tariff is not a tax, or at all events that it is not a tax if it is levied on things that are produced in this country or can be produced here. It is a tax if levied on tea or coffee, because these articles are not produced here, but it is not a tax if levied on wool or tin plate, because these are or may be produced here. This idea found expression in the Chicago platform. If the tariff is a tax, the conclusion follows that the tax is paid by somebody and received by somebody else. Then by logical steps it becomes necessary to show that the tax so paid and received gets back to the payer in exact proportion to his payment, in which case nobody is better off than if the tax had not been levied at all. On the contrary, since it costs something to collect taxes, everybody in the supposed case is worse off. Nobody can be bettered unless he gets something that he has not

earned, something that belongs to somebody else.

The idea that a tariff is not a tax, embodied in the Chicago platform and getting its highest expression in the free-whiskey plank, did not wear well. It was abandoned on the 4th of October, when the Senate Committee reported its substitute for the Mills bill. The Republican party "changed front in face of the enemy." It reported a schedule of changes in the tariff, some up and some down. This was President Cleveland's second victory. His first had been the awakening of his own party. His next was the right-about-face of the Republican party. When the Senate bill was reported, it made the issue of the campaign a difference concerning schedules as to things that are or may be produced in this country. The Republicans reduced the tax on sugar more than the Democrats did, but they reduced the taxes on other things less; on others, neither party made any reduction; and on still others, notably on wool, the Republicans increased the tax. In short, the acknowledgment was publicly made that a tariff is a tax, although levied upon things that are or may be produced in this country.

Now that the public have been brought to think and reason, and to divide upon this great question, which is no other than the right of each man to the fruits of his own toil, and now that the admission has been extorted from the Republicans that the tariff is a tax, we look with entire tranquillity upon the result of the election, in progress as we write. As surely as the fight against slavery was unextinguishable while slavery remained, so surely will the fight against tariff spoliation be continued and renewed as long as that wicked system lasts. If Mr. Harrison is elected, the fight will break out in his own party. The intestine strife that led to the smashing of the Chicago platform will grow and increase. The varied interests that are now combined to tax the many for the benefit of the few cannot be held together. The spoliation tariff is doomed to fall, and the crash will be all the greater if the Republicans continue to defend and uphold it. A new force has appeared in the field of politics. It has the inspiration of truth, the vigor of youth, the courage of a great conviction, the stimulus of patriotism, and an assured faith in the triumph of the right. It has all the growing elements and the moral impetus that gave the anti-slavery party its final triumph; and triumph it will, whatever may be the result of its first battle.

PAUPER CAPITAL.

PERHAPS the absurdest thing about the Republican position in this campaign has been that their great cry of pauper-labor competition was a conclusive argument against the Senate bill, whose distinguishing feature is its sweeping reduction in the tariff on sugar, while it has not the remotest application to the Mills bill, whose distinguishing feature is its removal of the tariff on the raw materials—wool, lumber, and

copper. The Senate bill's reduction of more than 40 per cent. in the tariff on sugar exposes our sugar producers to the competition, not so much of the pauper labor of Europe, as of the slave labor of the West Indies. In case, as the new school of Protectionists pretend, people who get high wages ought never to employ those who get low, but ought rather to perform the ill-paid work themselves, then the Senate bill is merciless to our laborers in permitting them to exchange the product of one day's labor in America for the product of four or five in the West Indies. Yet the Republican leaders, with the exception of Mr. Kelley, have swallowed this cardinal principle without a grimace, and applauded the action of the Senate. Nevertheless, in the same breath they have kept up the pauper-labor cry against the Mills bill, because it removed the taxes from three important raw materials, not one of which but is most cheaply produced either in our own country or else in Ontario or Australia, the only other countries in the world where wages are as high as our own. In the case of each of these industries, the costly protection now granted is not against the competition of cheap foreign labor, but against the competition of cheap foreign capital.

That this is true of the wool industry was practically confessed in the tariff debate of 1884, by the chief representative of the Ohio wool interests, Hon. George L. Converse. The wool-growers of Ohio, said Mr. Converse, must be "protected against the *cheap lands* of Australia." This argument was used because not even misrepresentation could supply another. Australasia produces annually 455,000,000 pounds of wool, half again as much as any country in the world. Yet Australasia is notoriously the trades-unionists' paradise. In the free-trade province of New South Wales the working day is but eight hours, while the wages, according to the official statistics cited by F. P. Powers in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for October, are as follows:

Bricklayers.....	11	shillings.
Piaesters.....	11	do
Carpenters.....	9	do
Painters.....	9	do
Laborers.....	8	do
Slaters.....	10 to 12	do
Etc., etc.		

When speaking of Australian competition, to talk of pauper labor would have been too ridiculous for even Mr. Converse to hazard; therefore he fell back upon the argument of European landlords, and demanded protection against the cheap lands of Australia in almost the same language as that used by the barons in the German Reichstag when they demand higher taxes on wheat and corn in order to be protected against the cheap lands of America. This taxing of the masses in order to raise the rents of the land-owners, though a less monopolistic measure in America than in Germany, is at the same time less intelligent. In Germany, the taxing of American grain really does raise the rents of landlords; but in Ohio its chief effect has been to induce farmers to turn land worth \$70 an acre for corn-raising into sheep-pastures, for which purpose \$3-an-acre land in Texas would serve as well. The wool tariff is thus the taxing of the masses for the

protection of capital, but not for its enrichment; for the capital is pensioned as a pauper only to compensate it for becoming worthless.

In the case of lumber, the irrelevancy of any cry against the competition of cheap labor is equally obvious. Along the Canadian border, whether in Michigan or in Washington Territory, the difference in wages between America and Canada is imperceptible. The labor of the two countries is interchangeable. When Congress added \$2 a thousand feet to the price of lumber, the lumber kings needed no more laborers than before, and, had they needed them, would have imported more Canadians rather than add a dime to the weekly wages of their men. The farmer in New Jersey pays no higher wages than the farmer in Nebraska, though his land is worth four times as much; and the lumber kings of the Northwest would pay no higher wages if the selling prices of their forests should be quadrupled by act of Congress. The tariff on lumber means monopoly pure and simple.

But the most flagrant case of all is the copper industry. The disgraceful history of the tariff on copper is well known; yet the demand for the imposition of the protective tax in 1869, in behalf of the richest mines in the world, was hardly so preposterous as is the demand for the retention of the tariff to-day. It is true that high wages are paid in these mines, and that the chief foreign competitors employ pauper labor; nevertheless, during the last decade, American labor has shown its ability to compete in the markets of the world by selling in Europe in 1885 more copper than it produced in 1875. During the decade between 1870 and 1880, the efficiency of the labor in the mines constantly increased, and the labor bill of the mine-owners proportionately diminished. According to the last census (Compendium, p. 1239) the per cent. of the value of the product paid for labor in 1870 was fifty-two; in 1880 it had sunk to thirty-six. With the exception of an expenditure for materials, which amounted to but 15.7 per cent. of the value of the product, the entire balance has been profit to the rich monopolists who owned the mines. The only effect of the tariff on copper has been to enable the rarely broken copper combination to charge a higher price to Americans than foreigners. The only competition feared is domestic competition. The protection now granted is the protection of extortion.

What Mr. Carnegie has said of the protection of raw materials in England is equally true in America. It is merely the taxation of the masses in order to increase the rents of the land-owning classes. If, then, it is robbery for legislation to reduce natural rents in order to benefit the laboring classes, it is equal robbery for it to increase natural rents in order to benefit the capitalist classes. The tariffs on raw materials, which the Mills bill repeals, are in every instance tariffs to increase natural rents. As was said by John H. Kasson, M. C., of Iowa, July 10, 1866, when as a Republican leader he discussed a measure to tax raw materials, the title of the Senate Bill "should be

changed so as to read: '*A bill to prevent the diffused blessings of divine Providence from being enjoyed by the people of the United States.*'"

THE ENGLISH VIEW.

It is clear that England is surprised at the dismissal of Lord Sackville, and that the surprise is genuine. She can see reasons why Lord Sackville should have retired, or been recalled, after a sufficient lapse of time to save dignities all around, but no reason why there should have been any haste about it—least of all why he should have been dismissed within a week after the offence had become known which admittedly called for his retirement. Since nearly all organs of English opinion take this view, we are required to believe that the soreness which exists is real and not feigned.

There are two facts in the case which have not been considered on the other side of the water, both of which ought to have been present to the mind of Lord Salisbury at the outset. One is, that the political effects of the Murchison letter, let the same be more or less, were to be wrought out within two weeks of the time that letter was published. We freely concede that, at another time, and under other circumstances, Lord Salisbury would have been allowed to take his time, and that Lord Sackville, if he delayed his departure, would have been frozen out, just as Minister Sargent was at Berlin, instead of being dismissed. Englishmen understand this as well as we do, and so they say that a great, civilized, friendly nation ought not to mind the fury of the Irish, who are not more than one fifth, perhaps not more than one-tenth, of the voting population. At all events, they say, the American people ought not to put this capricious and objectionable class of voters in the balance against the canons of diplomatic courtesy and the good will of a kindred people.

The situation was a difficult one, but it had two sides, and all we ask is that our side shall be considered and allowed to have its proper weight. It was quite within the range of possibilities that the Murchison letter should have been the deciding factor in the election. It was on the cards that Lord Sackville's blunder should elect Harrison and carry the next national House of Representatives. This was the intention of the scoundrels who entrapped him. The Republican party press and speakers were making use of the letter to the exclusion of everything else. They had even dropped their forged quotations from English newspapers in their glee over this find. It is impossible, and will for ever be impossible, to say what the net political effect of the letter would have been if matters had been allowed to run their course.

but it is certain that if the result had been the election of Harrison and a Republican House of Representatives, our relations with England would have become more strained than they are now. It is an article of faith of the Republican party that the fisheries dispute should not be settled by negotiation. This means that it should not be settled at all, but should be allowed to drift at the

mercy of wind and waves. It means that there should be a running sore on both sides of the line, a constant cause of irritation, with all that that implies. Would it be desirable to have the policy of the nation settled in this sense for four years by a lurch of the Irish vote in the last two weeks of the campaign? Is it in human nature to contemplate that chance, and not take steps to prevent it? Lord Salisbury ought to have seen the thing in this light. He ought to have been wiser than the English newspapers in general have shown themselves to be.

The second fact that has escaped attention on the other side is, that this capricious and menacing Irish vote is England's contribution to our political life. It is no child of ours. We did not bring it into the world. We did not seek such a gauntlet to drive us hither and thither. We have institutions which depend upon universal suffrage, and we have to make the best of them. Of all who come from the Old World to help us make or mar our destiny, this British contribution alone sets the interests of its native land above those of its adopted country. Germans, Scandinavians, Bohemians, and Poles vote according to their conception of American interests; some few conceive that Socialism, or even Anarchism, would be beneficial to America, but none approach the polls with the smallest thought of Germany, Scandinavia, or Poland in their minds. The Irish alone vote for Ireland, and contribute their money for Ireland from year to year. Patriotism, as they understand it, is love for Ireland, and this is as a coal of fire in their hearts.

It is a piece of cheap advice to England to say that she can stop all this by satisfying the Irish in Ireland; that she can transform the Irish voter in America into a stanch and stable American citizen by giving the Irish in Ireland home rule. But bickering about home rule is not our present purpose. What we wish England to consider is, that if we have an excitable and irascible element in our politics, which has to be reckoned with in every important crisis of our national affairs, which busies itself three hundred and sixty-five days in the year with plans for vexing our relations with the mother country, and which has now grown to the dimensions of perhaps two million voters, that element is England's contribution. Therefore she must bear with us as best she can this disturbing element, which can no more be controlled under our form of government than can the disturbing influence of one planet on the orbits of the others.

AN EXPERIMENT IN RAILROAD CONTROL.

In the current number of the *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung*, Dr. von der Leyen describes the development of a system of railroad control in Prussia no less interesting than that of the advisory commissions in America. The Prussian system presents some features that might be profitably studied and perhaps imitated in this country.

When Alsace and Lorraine were annexed after the war of 1870, the Imperial Govern-

ment naturally took possession of the railroads. The old French tariff system could not be maintained to advantage under the new management, nor was it possible, under the traffic conditions of the country, to adopt any of the existing German schedules. The matter was compromised by the adoption of an extremely simple system of rates, which on the whole gave satisfaction. In order still further to conciliate the merchants of the country, the Government asked their advice on many subjects, and it was suggested by the Chamber of Commerce of Mülhausen that such consultations should be regularly organized. The Government was glad to meet this suggestion; it was at once put into execution in Alsace, and efforts were made to extend it to other parts of the German Empire. In most cases, however, the first results were disappointing. Merchants and manufacturers did not believe in the new arrangement, and they took little interest in naming their representatives at the conferences. But in the autumn of 1879, in connection with extensive purchases of private railroads by the Prussian Government, legal recognition was given to the whole system. A law was passed providing for the election, largely by local representative bodies, of members of a local advisory board, some representing commerce, some manufactures, and some agriculture. From the members of these local boards, with the addition of a few others, a general advisory board was chosen. All important changes in railroad policy were henceforth to be submitted either to the local or general board, accordingly as they affected local or general business interests. This system was rapidly extended. As the Prussian Government obtained more and more complete monopoly of the railroad management, public interest in this means of representation increased. The principle of election by local governments seems to have been discarded. The members of local boards are now chosen by chambers of commerce and other industrial organizations. In the General Board, however, one-quarter of the members are named directly by the Government, only three-quarters being directly representative of trade and agricultural interests.

These bodies are like commissions of the Massachusetts type in the fact that their functions are purely advisory. They afford a means of securing publicity of management. In some respects they do this better than a commission, in other respects not so well. The advantage is, that they represent directly almost all trades, so that, in any important change of policy, there is a fuller opportunity for different sides to be heard than is ordinarily the case in connection with the reports of a commission. The disadvantage is, that such a body is necessarily somewhat unwieldy. It is weeks before it can come to a decision, and months before the grounds for such a decision can be fully presented or its influence felt in matters of practical railroad management.

There is also this difference between the German and American systems: the German roads are owned by the Government, Ameri-

can roads by private corporations. The American Commission, therefore, represents Government and business against the immediate management of the roads, while the German Advisory Board represents business interests against the management and the Government. But the means of control is the same in the two cases. Publicity exercises a controlling force on an irresponsible government in Germany in the same way that it exercises its power upon an irresponsible corporation in America.

The Railroad Commission has to day passed out of the stage of development represented by the Massachusetts type. The Inter-State Commerce Commission has become a court, and there is a tendency on the part of State commissions to assume the same functions. This leaves a gap, which might well be filled by a local advisory board. There are almost always strained relations between traffic managers and shippers, due to the absence of free communication between one party and another. The Inter-State Commerce Commission has tried to prevent such misunderstandings, and its efforts in that direction during the first year of its work were often crowned with gratifying success. It was found that many supposed causes of dispute disappeared when there was a fair and free opportunity to talk matters over. But the Commission has so much to do in getting opinions on actually disputed cases that it cannot do full justice to this part of the work. An organized body by which the various classes of shippers should give expression to their demands, is in the highest degree desirable. In one respect it is more needed now than it was two years ago. The system of special rates, however great its abuses, nevertheless gave opportunity for shippers to influence the policy of a railroad. A single shipper could secure a reduction; and often a reduction which was made in one instance soon became general. There is danger to-day that the prohibition of special rates will prove the means of preventing the first step in reduction, which opens the way for so many more. If we can take no steps except under a general demand for change, it is more than ever desirable that bodies should be organized by which this general demand can make itself felt. It would be hard to get such a system into good working order. No one could tell who represented fairly the different industries. Many merchants and manufacturers in America would look upon the new system with even more distrust than was felt at first in Germany. But with the increasing organization of industry, the demand for something like representative government of the industrial affairs of a nation becomes stronger every day; and experiments on this line would seem to have the best chance of success.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY. PHILADELPHIA, November 3.

THE fall meeting of the American Oriental Society took place in this city on October 31 and November 1. It was one of the most successful the Society has ever held, more than forty papers and communications being pre-

sented. The first session was held on Wednesday afternoon in the chapel of the University of Pennsylvania, and that of Thursday in the rooms of the Historical Society. Dr. William Hayes Ward in the chair. Dr. Cyrus Adler of Johns Hopkins read reports on the exhibition of oriental antiquities made by the National Museum at the late Cincinnati Exposition, and on a collection of oriental antiquities recently deposited at Washington. Dr. Ward presented a paper on a very interesting Babylonian cylindrical object recently found at Oroomiah, Persia. The walls, of transparent alabaster, are six millimetres thick, the designs in relief being archaic Babylonian. Two doors are being opened by two porters who stand at their side. Between the doors stands Shamash, the sun-god, with his left leg exposed, the foot resting on a hill. Behind him comes Hiabani, with three other persons, one of whom is the goddess Aa. The cylinder was not turned on a wheel, as tool-marks are plainly visible on the inside. It resembles many of the cylindrical seals, and is very valuable for Babylonian mythology. Dr. Ward also read a paper on the Babylonian caduceus, which he is inclined to see in an emblem often found in the hands of the deity as represented in the seals. This emblem is very similar to a sceptre or trident, for which it has often been mistaken. Dr. Ward prefers to see in it a double serpent arising from one stem. The clue to this identification is given by the single serpent which occurs so frequently.

Prof. Toy of Harvard described the modern Arabic dialect of Cairo, which he has had occasion to study personally during the past year. Prof. Moore of Andover gave an account of a Samaritan MS. now in the library of the Andover Theological Seminary, containing portions of the Book of Exodus, and assigned its composition to the thirteenth or fourteenth century. A very interesting paper was presented by Prof. John A. Payne on the seventh year of Cambyses. Mr. Pinches of the British Museum published a few months ago (*Babylonian and Oriental Record*, vol. ii, p. 202) a Babylonian astronomical tablet containing references to an eclipse which occurred in the seventh year of Cambyses. This eclipse not only fixes the date of the accession of Cambyses at 529 B.C., but is identical with the one mentioned by Ptolemy in his 'Almagest' (Book V., chapter 14, §5). Prof. Payne suggested that this might be the original tablet upon which Hipparchus and Ptolemy had based their information.

On Wednesday evening the society met at the house of Dr. Pepper, Provost of the University, to listen to a discussion on the method and use of Semitic studies in the University and Theological Seminary. The first speaker, Dr. W. H. Ward, emphasized the importance of the study of oriental civilization in the departments of art, history, and theology. He reviewed the past history of these studies in this country and the advances which have been made during the past ten years. He hoped that the material now deposited at the Metropolitan Museum and at the University of Pennsylvania would not have to wait long for competent scholars. Prof. Harper of Yale also took a hopeful view, saying that Semitic study, in the University, had been born again to a life far more vigorous than the old life, because more widely extended and deeply rooted. He showed briefly what could be accomplished in the different Oriental languages, not only in the department of philology, but also in that of history and literature. Future success, he felt, was assured, because of the importance of the study itself—an importance now appreciated

by those who make this study their profession, as well as by intelligent, broad-minded, and broad-hearted men in every line of labor. Prof. Francis Brown, of Union Theological Seminary, followed with an account of the position Semitic studies must occupy in a theological seminary. He dwelt upon the great assistance the colleges might render if they sent their students to the seminaries well versed in the rudiments of the chief Semitic languages. Remarks were also made by Profs. Toy, Gottschell of Columbia, Green of Princeton, Haupt of Johns Hopkins, and Lyon of Harvard. The hope was expressed that every college and university would in a short time have its Chair for Oriental languages and literatures. During the evening Prof. Jastrow, of the University of Pennsylvania, exhibited specimens of a collection of Assyrian antiquities recently acquired by that institution.

The second day's sessions were opened by the reading of a paper sent by Dr. W. A. F. Martin of Pekin, entitled "Plato and Confucius: a Curious Coincidence." Dr. Martin pointed out that the ethical question which forms the basis of Plato's 'Euthyphron' is also found, and decided in a similar manner, in the writings of Confucius and his apostle Mencius. Prof. Hopkins of Bryn Mawr, in a paper on the qualitative variations in the Calcutta and Bombay texts of the 'Mahâbhârata,' showed that the text of the former, though the shorter of the two, deserves precedence. The Bombay text, generally considered the better, contains many additions made to glorify Vishnu and to amplify the poem *in majorem gloriam* of the Pandus. An interesting paper on the development and character of Mohammedan education was read by Prof. Frothingham of Princeton. It was shown that the Arabs, in the golden age of their history, had a complete system of pedagogies. Among the distinguishing features of their system were the democratic principles of equality which opened the instruction, not only to Arabs, but to Christians and Jews alike. Freedom was also allowed the individual teacher to use what method he might think best. The Arab ideal of culture—and this is to be insisted upon—was distinctly moral. To a certain degree the entire population was educated, attendance at school being obligatory up to the ninth year. For the purposes of higher instruction, colleges flourished in all parts of the caliphate, where the intellectual, experimental, and linguistic sciences were cultivated. Spain even had its college for women.

Mr. Talcott Williams of Philadelphia read a note on the Arch of Chosroes, which was minutely described, and in which he proposed to see a gigantic divan. Prof. Haupt sought to determine the exact measurements of the Assyrian "Noah's Ark." In the well-known Deluge Tablet, lines 25 and 26 giving these measurements are mutilated. By comparison with another text and with the Babylonian Deluge Tablet, Dr. Haupt arrives at the conclusion that the ark measured 600 by 120 cubits, about 500 by 110 feet.

In a paper on "Symbols of the Sun-God and the Word *Kuduru*," Prof. Jastrow sought an explanation of the disc which, in company with the staff, is seen in the hand of the god on the Abu Habba Stone. He believes that this is the *Kuduru*, which he identifies with a Bitilical and Tadmudic word meaning "globe" or "sphere." In the sense of "circle," it would stand for that country over which the god presided. In this way Prof. Jastrow would explain the name Nebuchadnezzar (*Nebukuduru-usur*) to mean "Nebo protect my country." Prof. Lyon spoke on some Assyrian and Babylonian royal prayers, and on the Pantheon of

Assurbanipal, which contained twelve gods, while, at other times, there were not more than seven. Prof. Isaac H. Hall of New York, described and exhibited a New Testament MS., Peshito version, date A. D. 1206, with a text of the Traditions of the Apostles. This Syriac text of the Traditions differs materially from the Greek text.

Prof. Gottheil read a paper entitled "A Proposal to Catalogue all the Oriental MSS. in America." These MSS. are scattered in different public and private libraries throughout the country; they are not accessible to students, and are even, in a large measure, quite unknown to them. It would be the work of the Oriental Society to obtain a complete list of all existing MSS., and then to publish a detailed and systematic catalogue of them. The proposition was very favorably received, and a committee, consisting of Profs. Hall, Gottheil, Moore, and Hopkins, and Dr. Adler, was appointed to take the matter in hand, subject to the advice and approval of the Council.

Among the papers read in full or by title were also the following: "On the Origin of Certain Rajput Forms of the Substantive Verb in Hindi," by Prof. S. H. Kellogg; "Notes on a Trip through the Chinese Provinces, Chihli and Shansi, and through Southern Mongolia," "The Lamaist Ceremony called 'Making of Mani Pillis,'" and "On the Use of Skulls in Lamaist Ceremonies," by Mr. W. W. Rockhill, of Pekin; "The Indo-European Hypothesis," by Mr. M. W. Easton of Philadelphia; "Notes on the Proposed Edition of the Works of Edward Hincks;" "Verbs tertiary infirme in Assyrian," by Dr. Cyrus Adler; "Paphlagonian Tombs" (illustrated by stereopticon views), by Prof. Marquand, of Princeton; "Targum MSS. in the British Museum;" "Origin of the Superlinear Vowel-System," by Prof. Moore; "A MS. of the Thirteenth Century, containing Portions of the Targum," by Prof. Gottheil; "The Asuri Kalpa, a Witchcraft Practice of the Atharva-Veda," by Mr. W. H. Magee of Baltimore; "A New Vedic Text on Omens and Portents," by Mr. J. T. Hatfield; "On Transposed Stems in the Babylonian Talmud," by Dr. Marcus Jastrow; "The Names of the Hebrew Tenses," by Prof. W. H. Green.

In the evening a reception was tendered the society by Dr. H. Clay Trumbull, editor of the *Sunday School Times*. Two beautiful American MSS. were shown the Society by Prof. I. H. Hall; Arabic, Hebrew, and Syriac ones by Prof. R. Gottheil; and Hebrew rolls by Dr. Trumbull and Mr. Mayer Sulzberger. Dr. W. H. Ward exhibited a beautiful collection of Babylonian seals.

The Society adjourned to meet in May, 1889, in Boston. R. J. H. G.

THE MARQUIS OF LONDONDERRY IN BELFAST.

DUBLIN, October 20, 1888.

At a banquet in Belfast a few days ago, the Lord Lieutenant announced that "her Majesty has been graciously pleased to confer on this town the dignity and the honor of the title of a city; the honor is greatly enhanced by the fact that on no other occasion has this title been conferred on any town that was not the seat of a bishopric." No Irishman should grudge Belfast this honor or any other that can be conferred on her. One of the good effects of home rule will be that, the pretensions of that city and a corner of the north to dictate regarding the government of the rest of the country being removed, all Irishmen may be proud of Belfast and the north, as Englishmen are of Manchester and their north, or

as Scotchmen are of Glasgow. The cities and towns of Ireland are, according to modern ideas, for the most part insignificant in size. The population of none of them, except Dublin and Belfast, rises above 100,000, all others having, in common with the rest of Ireland, rather diminished in population since 1841. Cork has fallen from 81,000 to 80,000. Limerick from 48,000 to 28,000. Waterford, from 35,000 to 22,000. Dublin, including its suburbs, has increased from 240,000 to about 300,000. Belfast, from 75,000 to about 225,000. No wonder, then, that Belfast feels elated, and that, as with most of those who have advanced themselves in life, there is a self-consciousness about her not always agreeable to others. The rest of Ireland, Dublin especially, does not concern itself much about Belfast, but Belfast (or "Belfast" as the inhabitants say) is much occupied with herself and her own importance. Educated persons in Dublin would be laughed at who boasted that anything was especially good because of belonging to this city. Belfast people incline to think that, in Ireland at least, there is little admirable outside Belfast and its neighborhood, and are apt as far as possible to ignore the rest of their country.

The difference between the two cities is marked. Dublin is the governing and professional centre of Ireland; here are "the Castle," the law courts, the universities, and chief offices, while we have few manufactures, and it is a problem how the masses of our poor live. Belfast is the industrial centre of Ireland, there are the magnificent ship building yards at which the White Star and some of the other finest vessels in the world are constructed. Belfast is also the well defined centre of Presbyterian thought, having within its district 450,000 of the 470,000 Irish Presbyterians. There are in Ireland 640,000 Episcopalians, of whom only 280,000 are in Belfast and the corner counties. The Church Synod, therefore, meets in Dublin. In so far as Ireland is Catholic, Dublin is uncontestedly its religious capital; in so far as it is Protestant, it has two capitals. Dublin Protestants feel very much at one with their co-religionists over Ireland; Belfast Protestants confine their sympathies more to their own district. If an Irish association quasi-Protestant be established for any purpose, what is called Ulster is pretty sure to assert its independence. We have Ulster temperance leagues, Ulster women's suffrage associations, Ulster schoolmistresses' associations, and the like. The Ulster people prefer to manage their own affairs, and generally do so vigorously and well. The same characteristics of grit, sturdiness and hard-headedness that we associate with the Scotch immigration in the north of Ireland, existed to a certain extent before the Anglo-Norman invasion, and the same rivalry between north and south—only it was then as much the south against the north as the north against the south.

Belfast has none of that air of stately, faded metropolitan grandeur that there is about Dublin; she has no buildings like our old Parliament House and Trinity College, the Custom House and the Law Courts; but on the whole her inhabitants are much better housed than ours. The mass of the Dublin people occupy wretched tenements—single rooms of large old houses once the dwellings of the well-to-do. Whole districts of old Dublin are absolutely rotten. When buildings fall, it hardly pays to rebuild them. When past a certain limit of danger and unfitness for human habitation, they are closed; you may pass through lanes of these closed houses in what was once a busy part of Dublin. Portions, happily, have been demolished, and rebuilt by the Artisans' Dwell-

ing Company; one small demolished quarter is now being converted into a public garden by the Guinness family. But these are only oases in the filth and decay and degradation in the old parts of Dublin. There is, besides, a savagery in living such as I have never seen elsewhere, not alone due to defects in our present system, but also to a direct inheritance of times when the Irish generally were especially low in the scale of civilization. The mass of the Belfast workers inhabit separate, neat houses of modern construction. Dublin is one of the unhealthiest, Belfast one of the healthful cities in the United Kingdom. There are dirt and misery in Belfast, but far less than in Dublin. The working-people there look as if they had bought their own clothes; here they have more the appearance of wearing second-hand garments. The great mills, the roar of the spindles, the lorries piled with bales, a general go and brightness and hope in the air, the shriek of the steam-whistles at meal-hours, the streets crowded with hurrying working-people—these in Ireland belong only to Belfast. There you do not seem to be in Ireland; it is more as if you were in the States or the north of England, and Belfast is less gloomy than English manufacturing towns of similar size; yet there is through all a certain provincialism of life and thought and feeling, and the city is, as we all know, disgraced by occasional rioting and brutality peculiar to it. Catholic majorities over the rest of Ireland show a liberality respecting honors and spoils which is not shown by Protestant majorities in Ulster; and such disabilities as Protestants do labor under are due almost entirely to political causes, while in Ulster the opposition to Catholics is mainly on religious grounds.

It is strange, this claim of Ulster to a life in the Empire distinct from the rest of Ireland. The Protestants and Catholics in Ulster are nearly equal. Of nine counties, four are represented entirely by home rule. There is not one county without a home-rule representative. Its home rule representatives are a majority of one. In three-quarters of its area, the Catholics are nearly two to one. In the remaining quarter, containing two-fifths of the population, and comprising the extreme northeast corner of Ireland, and mainly three counties only, the Protestants are about three to one. At the last census, the income-tax assessment of Ulster was less by nearly £1,000,000 than that of Munster and Connaught combined, and less by £3,000,000 than that of Leinster. This may not be altogether a fair criterion of general wealth, since such a large proportion of the inhabitants of Ulster earn high wages and occupy a comparatively comfortable position without coming under the operation of the tax. Leinster, for taxation purposes, is rated at £4,761,000; Ulster at £4,346,000; Munster at £3,424,000; Connaught at £1,366,000. In education Leinster is ahead of, and Munster nearly on a level with Ulster.

It is difficult to understand how Belfast and the small portion of Ulster decidedly Protestant and anti-Irish could be staked off from the rest of Ireland. "I wish to goodness it could have been," said a Nationalist M. P. to me the other day. "How would its farmers now feel if they had no Land Acts, or its Presbyterians if they still had to support the Episcopalian Church?" The Belfast corporation is just about to consolidate and lower the interest on its debt by availing itself of an act passed almost entirely through the exertions of Mr. Sexton and other home rule members. The opposition of Belfast and the north to home rule arises from local jealousy. 900,000 Ulster Protestants would have much more influence in

an Irish Parliament representing a population of 5,000,000 than in a London Parliament representing 30,000,000. Ireland could not harm Ulster without harming herself. With the guarantees upon which home rule would be conceded, how could she single out the Ulster Protestants for attack? How could she injure them without injuring the mass of Catholic employees dependent on them for livelihood? And if Ireland had the opportunity, she would not have the strength to injure a race like the northern Protestants, even if they were not backed by the Protestant opinion of England and the United States, where Catholic minorities desire to make their way. When it comes to the point, I do not believe Belfast and Ulster will fear to throw in their lot with the rest of Ireland. They would hardly consent to leave the small minority of Protestants scattered over the rest of the country to be hopelessly swamped by a Catholic majority; and all Catholics are not considered even by Ulster-men as Catholics in the dangerous sense. A recent writer has pointed out that if ever there are 500,000 or so of the better class of Catholics in Ireland reasonable and reliable, they and the Protestants will hold the balance of power in the country. Much of what is said regarding the inherent incompatibility of the north and the south of Ireland reminds me of the views current thirty years ago regarding the inherent incompatibility of the Italian peoples.

The Marquis of Londonderry announced her Majesty's desire regarding Belfast at a public banquet upon the opening of a free library, the foundation stone of which had been laid some years ago by Earl Spencer, then Lord Lieutenant, in the odor of sanctity as an opponent of home rule. The Marquis's speech was in the main a glorification of the Balfour government of Ireland. The most casual reader will see in it evidence of those proclivities in the governing class here which render it impossible for the Queen to be popular in Ireland. In Great Britain, royalty is a neutral representative centre, round which politicians of all shades can meet, as round a common love of country. However bitter politics may be, however the Queen or royal family may be supposed to incline one way or the other, neither she nor any member of her family ever thinks of openly taking sides, much less of publicly indulging in strong language regarding any political party. The Lord Lieutenant is the Queen's representative; he is about all of her Majesty or her family we ever see. And it was at this banquet in Belfast where, "as representative of our beloved Queen in Ireland," he felt "quite at a loss to find words with which to thank you for the kind manner in which you have proposed my health," he then went on to abuse the Opposition, and to speak of the Irish members and their doings respecting the Plan of Campaign in a way which would hardly be justifiable even if they were convicted felons. He asserted that his policy and that of his party had been a complete success; yet, strange to say, "we know well that if we were to relax the firm hand that holds the reins of government in Ireland, that fire which is at present smouldering would inevitably spring into a blaze"—not very reassuring as to the permanent effects of the policy.

Statistics of crime and outrage in Ireland, collected as they are by instruments entirely under the influence and control of the central authority, and always inclining to favor the current views of the Government, are not very reliable. I have in previous communications traced the reasons for crime and outrage having diminished, and for the agitation having somewhat subsided. The Coercion Act has had

perhaps a little to do with this, but not much; ameliorative and hope-inspiring causes have been more potent. I doubt the correctness of his Excellency's contention that farms from which tenants have been unjustly (or, for that matter, justly) evicted are being taken up with any more readiness than they have been since the commencement of the agitation. If this were the case, to the extent he claims, the agrarian difficulty would for the present be at an end. So far as I can ascertain, "evicted farms" are as closely boycotted as ever. Only the other day a relative holding property and residing in one of the most settled districts in Ireland, complained to me that there would be no use in his evicting a notoriously troublesome tenant of a laborer's cottage, because no one else would take it. (The present temper of the country relative to such holdings will eventually press heavily on the poor, the application of capital to the construction and maintenance of residences for them being entirely checked by the difficulties in collecting rents and in resuming possession in cases of unsatisfactory occupiers.)

The Government are trying to show that the law is being "firmly, fairly, and fearlessly" administered all round, by not administering it at all in certain classes of cases. Men are arrested and punished here and there, now and then, to keep up an appearance. But if the law were fully carried out, the jails in Ireland would not hold one-tenth of those who would be committed for breach of proclamations against the League and the Plan, and the Press clauses. The law could not be carried out, and is not carried out further than is necessary to save appearances. The rise in the value of live-stock since last March from 36s. to 42s. per head for sheep and from 50s. to 60s. per cwt. for beef may have a much more quieting effect upon the agitation than the power now exercised by Government. After all, the ballot-box, and not rhetoric, supposition, or statistics, proves the real feeling of the country; and there is nothing in late elections, and in the municipal elections now proceeding, to indicate any change here in the relations of parties. The advance of opinion in some directions is certain. A few years ago those who now most violently oppose political change, upheld the land system of the country as the best that could be desired, maintaining that a system under which the landlord held the capital and the occupier had its use, was better for the state than the systems of peasant proprietorship, with their attendant clog of mortgages. On this subject there is an entire change of opinion. The *Daily Express*, the organ of Irish landlordism and ascendancy, said a few days ago, relative to the sale of a large portion of the Abercorn estates to the occupiers:

"It may be conceived that, in the case of a thrifty and industrious tenantry, the change from tenancy to ownership will have a magical effect . . . Although the bonds of attachment which have been transmitted from feudal times are now loosened, we are sure that it will only be a legal severance, and that feelings of sympathy and friendship will still be cherished on both sides."

These considerations as to Ulster and the present state of feeling in Ireland have been prompted by a perusal of the Lord Lieutenant's speech at Belfast. But every other interest pales before the proceedings of the Commission which in a few hours is to open at Westminster.

D. B.

GEORGE SAND IN ITALY.

VENICE, September 12, 1888.

It was towards two o'clock one morning after the great *galleggiante* down the Grand Canal, that we stopped at Florian's for a cooling

drink, and thoughtlessly asked the waiter at what hour the café closed. "Closed, sir?" he said with astonishment. "The doors of Florian's have not been shut for three hundred years." And truly, as the streets and canals of Venice are never deserted by day or night, it is possible to sit in any part of St. Mark's Square, and imagine that life has never ceased there since those buildings were first erected. The "Cappello Nero" over there has been an eating-house for more than five hundred years. You glance at the windows of the Procurazie, and seem to see the same figures looking down on the Doge's procession which you saw that day at the Academy in the pictures of Gentile Bellini, or in the reproductions of the old woodcuts hanging in the show cases of Onganía's bookshop at the corner; or, on turning your head, you see the masks and jests of the last century as you saw them in the pictures of Longhi in the Civic Museum. You see those very scarlet gowns which hang there, over the shoulders of real people; for they cannot be creatures of the imagination. There is no place so easy to repeople as Venice, and none where the ways of reviving are so many and so various.

But one element of the population of old times is wanting. The gondoliers ply their oars from father to son; the shopkeepers and petty tradesmen still practise the virtues inculcated in their minds by the old conservative Republic; there are perhaps not so many priests and abbés visible in the cafés, and their worldliness has given place to the outward decorum demanded by the age; foreigners of all nations are here in as great numbers as at any time during the last two centuries; Venice is still hospitable to dethroned royalty; but the old nobility are no longer here. They spent their fortunes in riotous living during the last century, especially in their mania for *villeggatura*, satirized by Goldoni, and borrowed money from convents and monasteries to keep up their state, until there came the French occupation, and the mortgages on their estates were foreclosed to fill the coffers of Napoleon. With their fortunes the families also disappeared, and few of them can now boast of a male representative. It is true that many of the old names still exist, but those who bear them are, for the most part, not even connected by birth with the nobles whose names they have taken. It was at times customary for a servant, client, or dependent to give his child as a baptismal name that of the family which he served. In many cases the name of the reigning Doge was thus introduced. With time the plebeian name has been dropped, while that of the noble family alone remains. For example, Daniel Manin, the illustrious patriot of 1849, was no relation to Lodovico Manin, the last Doge, but a Jew to whom his name had been given. When it became necessary for the Austrians to give up Venetia, the Emperor Francis Joseph would have been glad to have restored the old Venetian republic, but, on asking the advice of his best qualified counsellors, was unable to find a sufficient number of descendants of noble families to fill the official posts.

Good old Jules Lecomte, in his excellent guide-book to Venice—in which, by the way, he gives a very interesting account of the higher Venetian society of the early part of this century—recommends as a way of learning and appreciating Venice the perusal of George Sand's Venetian tales. He wrote at a time when these had been recently published; but his advice is still worth taking, for these stories, even after fifty years, have lost none of their freshness. The impression made by Venice on George Sand was so strong that,

long after her visit, the recollection of it would inspire charming bits of writing. She almost foretold this in a passage in "Lettres d'un voyageur," written while still at Venice:

"On putting my hands to my face I inhaled the odor of a sage bush, whose leaves I had touched some hours before. This little plant was now flourishing on its mountain several leagues away from me. I had respected it; I had carried away from it only its exquisitely fragrant perfume. Without causing any loss to the plant from which it emanates, it attaches itself to the hand of a friend, and follows him on his way, to charm him, and to recall to him for a long time the beauty of the flower that he loves.—Knead the fragrance is the perfume of the soul."

It was the remembrance rather than the reality of Venice which inspired George Sand, except in the first part of the book just cited, where she wrote under the impression of a recent passion.

"The hazy nights," she says, "of our own mild regions have charms that no one has felt more than myself, and no one has less wish to deny. Here Nature, more vigorous in her influence, perhaps a little too much imposes silence on the mind. She fills thought to sleep, agitates the heart, and dominates the senses. Only a man of genius could think of writing poems during these voluptuous nights—one should sleep or love."

She had loved, and the first part of her stay in Venice had included her idyl with Alfred de Musset. It is useless recapitulating now a story about which so much has been written. The "Histoire d'un merle blanc," "Elle et Lui," and "Lui et Elle" give us no detailed facts to enable us to understand from three points of view the divergences of character that brought to a speedy end a passionate love, which strongly influenced them both for the rest of their lives. In none of these, of course, are there real facts and real names, but the allusions were only too evident to the curious public at the time. George Sand's story of the two painters is clever and pleasing as a story, and, while it represents the hero as very weak, makes him sympathetic. Paul de Musset's tale of two musicians is brutal, both in its statements and its insinuations, but is yet well enough done to leave you with a feeling of detestation for the héroïne. Arsène Houssaye has recently made a revelation of this affair which he professes to have taken down from Musset's lips. Musset first met George Sand at a dinner given by Buloz of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and sat between them. He says: "Between Buloz and George Sand there could be no hesitation," but he added that her great eyes did not fascinate him long. He had really loved her only at Venice,

"because Venice always inspires love in poets and artists. You may imagine that on first meeting her I found neither beauty nor charm in her; although she might play with a swan in remembrance of Maurice de Saxe, one of her thirty-six fathers, she was still a coquettish *bourgeoise*. I admired her in her genius, not in her face. I don't love women who affect coquetry, any more than real women love men who disguise themselves as women. Nevertheless, travelling with her in Italy intoxicated me a little, and, besides that, I was not sorry to carry her off from some other men who were sighing for her. The journey was charming. She, who had learned nothing, talked of everything as if it were by magic. I believed myself her master, but yet I bowed down before her."

During the earlier part of her stay at Venice George Sand lived at the Hôtel Itarelli, and it was there, on the last night of the carnival, when the extreme cold added to her moral sufferings, and she had the feeling of being all alone among a population of strangers all bent on amusing themselves, that, in order to distract herself, she began to write "Leone Leon," the idea of which was in part a reminiscence of

"Manon Lescaut." She finished it in a week, for when she sat down to the writing-table her inspiration never failed her, and interruptions did not hinder her power of self-concentration. She took no credit to herself for her power of work, which one of her friends described by saying: "She sits down to the table and turns the tap, somebody comes in, she shuts it off. While the interruption is over, she turns it on again." And so she wrote for nearly all her life, from midnight till morning, and often for a dozen of hours besides during the day. She was then writing to gain her bread, for the separation from her husband had not yet been arranged, and the money for her journey had been advanced by Buloz as payment for unwritten articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. But Daniel was then, as now, the most expensive alibi in Venice, and after Musset's departure she found a lodging in the Campo S. Lio, with an apothecary named Ancillo, who had been known from Byron's time on, as the greatest scandal-monger and *savant voyageur* in Venice. Mengaldo says of him in his diary: "A perfect good for nothing, but it is sometimes a good thing to make friends with the devil." Here, when for a while she was left without money, she dined with the strictest economy, and slept on a mattress on the floor, as she had no bedstead, but she was able to work for eighteen hours at a time without getting in, and generally for seven or eight hours at a time, after which she had only enough strength to go and drink her coffee, smoke her cigarette, and talk bad Italian with her friends on the Square of St. Mark. But here, apart from bread-winning, she wrote the charming "Lettres d'un voyageur," which it is difficult to praise too highly, and introduced us to the society of Bapa, the Doctor, the Abbé, the Gondolier, Camillo, and the Turk Zanetti, who all reappear from time to time in the stories written in later years.

All these tales due to Italian reminiscences have one thing in common with the novels of George Sand's first period, that they have really but one theme in all its changing forms—the passion of love. And they are not disfigured by the political, socialistic, and humanitarian changes and discussions which mark so disastrously the other work of her second period. Indeed, one of the greatest of these latter, "Consulat," would scarcely be readable now, were it not that the early part of it gives such an enchanting picture of the easy, careless Venetian life of the '40 days, and that the heroine is surrounded with a sort of mystic Italian glory which does not desert her even in the worst circumstances. I should have excepted one little story, "Les Maîtres Mosaiques," because in this there is scarcely a word of love from first to last. It is simply a *comédie* told to amuse a boy, and is an example of clever workmanship, though, in fact, a paraphrase of a dozen pages of dull prose at the end of Zanetti's book on Venetian pictures. But George Sand was consistent in all that she did. She says somewhere: "I like to have seen everything that I describe. If I have only three words to say about a place, I love to see it in my remembrance, and make as few mistakes about it as possible." So, when writing this little story at her solitude in Nohant, she asked a friend in Paris for details about Venetian costumes, and, with a sort of realism, drew the characters of the two heroes from two of her friends. This little masterpiece should be the first book read by the visitor at Venice, and he can then never pass through the Church of St. Mark without a sentimental interest in the mosaics, which will add greatly to his pleasure.

Her love of reality in the *mise-en-scène* never

hampered George Sand's imagination, and no improbabilities were allowed to stand in the way of the development of a plot or the painting of a character. Her intercourse with the shepherd children of Berry had early given her a love of the marvellous, and the mysterious corridors and winding passages in 'Frascati' and 'La Daniella' (which might be used as a guide-book to the country about Frascati) seem reminiscences of her wanderings about the garrets and cellars of her convent with the other girls, "in search for secrets that never existed, and to rescue from a romantic captivity imaginary victims whose names even were unknown." She says herself:

"I am very fond of romantic events—the unforeseen, intrigue, action in a novel. . . . I have used all my efforts to keep the literature of my times in a practical path between the peaceful lake and the rushing torrent; my instinct would have pushed me towards the precipice."

'La Daniella' was chiefly the product of a subsequent visit to Italy, and contains some singular criticisms on Genoa, Pisa, and Rome, none of which towns inspired the authoress with the sympathy which she had for Venice. She was disgusted with much that she saw at Rome, did not like the monuments, felt oppressed by the ruins, and especially by the dirt, saw nothing picturesque or harmonious in priests and beggars, and hated the Papal Government. All this is seen in the early part of the book, as well as in some of the later chapters; and in a letter to a friend, she says:

"No, I don't wish to admire anything, to love anything, to tolerate anything in the kingdom of Satan, in that old cave of brigands. I wish to spit on the people who kneel to the Cardinals. . . . If, thanks to me, any one takes a horror and disgust of Rome as it is to-day, I shall have done something. I could say as much about ourselves, if I were allowed."

The letter goes on hoping that the French are slightly better than the Romans, and will not sink quite so low under the Empire. The publication of 'La Daniella' brought two warnings to the newspaper in which it was published, *La Presse*; and another article by a different person soon after caused its suspension. As this fell in the middle of another story which George Sand was publishing, she wrote to the Empress, begging that the newspaper might be pardoned.

In 'L'Uscouque' she rewrote the history of Byron's 'Corsair,' and gave it a Venetian setting. "It was very cold in my room," she says in the preface, "and on going to sleep I used to see fantastic landscapes, rough seas, and storm-beaten rocks. The wind blowing outside, and the fire crackling on the hearth, used to produce strange cries and mysterious rustlings, and I believe that I was more possessed than charmed by my subject." The Corsair or Uscouque is a Venetian nobleman of high rank, who used his position of Admiral and Governor to join with the pirates one day in plundering his countrymen, while pretending to fight the pirates the day after.

In 'Le Piccinino' the fancy took her to tell the story of a brigand chief.

"Whether the type be frightful like those of Byron or worthy of the Monthyon prize like those of Cooper, it suffices for these heroes of despair to merit legally the rope or the galley for every good and honest reader to love them from the first pages and hope for the success of their enterprise. Why, then, under the pretext of being a reasonable person, should I be deprived of creating one to my liking?"

She did not aim in this book either at painting a precise historical epoch or faithfully describing a country. It was a color-study, dreamed rather than felt, where some traits are accidentally true. The scene was laid in

Sicily, rather than anywhere else, because she had just received some good engravings of that country.

All these tales are delightful, both to those who love a mere story for the story's sake, and to those who wish a relief from ordinary occupations; and they seem to suffer not at all from the lack of the realistic touches which are considered necessary by a Stevenson and a Haggard. In 'Teverino' and 'Le Secrétaire intime' you are removed far from any probabilities and possibilities of earth into the realms of poetry and fancy; and yet, while enjoying this, you feel all the time that you are in Italy. In one you get a glimpse of Bassano, in the other of Monaco; but the landscape is so dim and hazy that the pictures would be recognized only by those who know the country. Both of these stories are ended with the same inspiration with which they were begun. It had no time to cool. In many of the longer novels you feel the want of a settled plan: the opening is the finest part; then come the wearisome pseudo-philosophical discussions and reflections, which take the place of inspiration; and the dénouement arrives apparently as a mere matter of duty towards the publisher. George Sand was always fond of natural history: it was part of her love for nature. She gave herself up sometimes for weeks and months, together with her son Maurice, to researches in botany, mineralogy, and zoölogy, when she dreamt of nothing else, and her brains seemed to be filled exclusively with scientific terms; nothing else existed for her.

"After one of these scientific orgies," says Caro, "she had all the difficulty in the world to return to ordinary life and her habitual tasks." The 'Secrétaire intime' was suggested to her by a tale of Hoffmann, but it is easy to see from one chapter that it was written just after an entomological orgy.

One of her novels shows remarkably the author's love of nature, and her power of depicting passion, although it is chiefly, as she herself says, "a work of analysis and meditation." It is the strongest of all the tales due to the influence of Italy and one of the strongest of all her books. This is 'Lucrezia Floriani,' a picture of love and jealousy. The scene is laid in the soft landscape of Lake Iseo, such as she saw it in going from Milan to Venice. She has feebly denied that Prince Karoll, the jealous lover, is a portrait of Chopin; but there can be no question that Lucrezia is a portrait of herself—greatly idealized, it is true, but as characteristic as Thérèse in 'Elle et Lui.' Every page, as Caro says, "is written from an observation or a remembrance." In any case it would be difficult to find in literature a more faithful representation of the passion of jealousy—in this case, jealousy of an unconcealed and well-known past, which destroyed all pleasure of the present, and left no hope of happiness in the future.

In 'La Dernière Aldini' we return to Venice and the Venetian nobility, then in process of extinction. The story is told by Lelio, the tenor, one of her friends in the Campo S. Luca whose acquaintance we have already made in 'Lettres d'un Voyageur'; and most improbable it is. We return to the love-making between Mme. Aldini and her gondolier, even when we find that she had been married only for her money, and was despised by her husband for being in reality one of the common people; but the similar scene between the daughter and the gondolier, who had now bloomed into a great singer, is somewhat more natural. We remember, however, that it is a cardinal point of George Sand's faith that love is a leveller, and makes all men as all women equal; and when we yield

to the magic of her style, we almost believe it. This little story shows one trait which is rare in George Sand's works—a sense of humor; in real life she was utterly destitute of it, and her conversation, when more than one person was present, is said to have been very dull and heavy. It was only in the night watches, when her pen seemed to dictate to her brain, that she escaped from the grossness and commonplace of ordinary life into an imaginary world, full of light and airy creatures, whither she will lead, and where she will keep, all who begin to read her stories.

Renan, at one of the dinners at Magny's so celebrated in their time, said that George Sand was truer than Balzac; and added that she would be read three hundred years from now. The late M. Caro, in his charming sketch (which alone is sufficient to justify his election to the Academy), and other recent critics, think that the world is getting tired of realism and naturalism, at least as preached in contemporary France, and predict the return to passion and sentiment as shown in the works of George Sand. Her romantic nonsense and her tedious political philosophy may be eliminated, but very much will still remain.

E. S.

Correspondence.

ELY'S AMERICAN TAXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reviewer of my work on 'Taxation in American States' accuses me of ignorance of the decisions of the Supreme Court bearing on the constitutionality of a tax on gross revenues of railroads, which may be held to interfere with inter-State commerce. As your review will be read by many who will never see the book, may I in justice to myself quote a single sentence from page 227, in which I had in mind the very decision referred to?

"Prudence must be exercised in taxation of railroads, or it will be found that laws taxing them will be nullified by a Federal court, on the ground that it involves interference with inter-State commerce."

I believe the Wisconsin system still stands, and when I was in Wisconsin making a special study of taxation, one of the justices of the Supreme Court told me that he did not believe it could be successfully attacked. A few weeks ago a gentleman who has prepared a digest of all the decisions of the Wisconsin Supreme Court on the subject of taxation, wrote me that he regarded their system of taxing railroads as invulnerable. At the same time, I fully recognized the weighty character of the principle involved, and was careful to call attention to it. So far from never having considered the subject, it may not be improper to say that it was carefully considered by our Maryland Tax Commission, of which I had the honor to be a member, and that among its members were lawyers of standing in the community.

Whatever may be the tendency of the book, my intention was to recommend changes which should be an effectual barrier against socialism. It is easy to "call names," but it is generally regarded as evidence of malignity or of a weak cause. Yours truly,

RICHARD T. ELY.
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, MD.,
November 3, 1888.

GERMAN RAILWAY SERVICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As an offset to the unfavorable opinion concerning the railway service of Germany

expressed in the article "Competition in Fast Train Service," printed in the *Nation* for October 11, will you allow me to state briefly my experience of German railroad travel? Without possessing the special knowledge relating to this subject evinced by the writer of the article referred to, I have had no inconsiderable experience of our own railroads east of the Missouri River; and I had more than the tourist's usual interest in making whatever observations were possible in regard to railroad trains while making rapid journeys through Europe. Besides carrying a copy of Bradshaw's "Continental Railway Guide" in a hand-satchel, I made it a point to secure, whenever possible, the local guides or railroad time-tables, and also made a practice of timing the arrival and departure of the various trains.

The following routes, wholly or partly within the German Empire, were travelled over during 1887: Lindau-Munich-Vienna; Vienna-Prague-Dresden-Leipzig; Leipzig to Weimar, to Jena, to Halle, and return; Leipzig-Berlin-Rostock (Warnemünde); Kiel-Hamburg-Bremen-Hanover-Frankfort; Cologne-Frankfort-Heidelberg-Strassburg. With but a single exception, no trains on any of these routes were late, either in departing or arriving. They sometimes reached stations a few minutes earlier than was indicated upon the time-tables, but in such cases delayed their departure until the time set down in the table. The single exception was in the case of a fast train from Hanover to Cassel and Frankfort, which was about fifteen minutes late in reaching Göttingen. This was much complained of at the university town as a thing of too frequent occurrence as regards that special train, and the explanation given was that the schedule time did not make sufficient allowance for the transfer of passengers and baggage from the Berlin-Hanover train, with which it was necessary to make connection. My impressions of the railway service of Germany, as regards reasonable speed, punctuality, choice of trains (both as to swiftness and cost of tickets), comfort, and a prevalent, and to an American most delightful, sense of safety, were entirely favorable.

S

PURITY IN POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Every lover of higher morals in politics must admire the course of the *Nation* in its endeavors to bring about reform in the civil service and a wise readjustment of the tariff. The inexorable law which politicians seem so unable to grasp is, that the purest party, with the highest aims, must in the long run be the victorious party. This is illustrated in this country and in England by the fact of the frequent change of administration; by the fact that, if the party in power ceases to represent the highest aims in politics, the party out of power, declaring its attachment to such aims, very soon succeeds in wresting the power from the more corrupt one. This law it was that brought victory to Lincoln and the Republican party in 1860, and that turned the party of that name out of power in 1884, and gave victory to Cleveland and the Democrats.

However the coming election issues, whether in keeping in Cleveland or putting in Harrison, let the successful party remember in its flush of triumph that, if old and rejected party corruptions are taken up and questionable political methods countenanced, defeat is sure to come, and quickly. I would transcribe here for the consideration of thoughtful men the following words of a wise living historian, Bishop Stubbs ("Lectures on Mediaeval and Modern History":

"What we want to see is men applying to history and politics the same spirit in which wise men act in their discipline of themselves—not to cease to be partisans, not to cease to hold and utter strong opinions, but to be as careful in their party behavior and in their support of their opinions as they are in their behavior in social circles, their conversation in social life. The first object of the true politician, as of the true patriot, is to keep himself and his party pure, and then to secure victory; to abolish meanness and corruption where he has influence, rather than to make capital by denouncing it where his denunciation can only provoke a retort. The sound politician, on whichever side he may be, believes that his scheme of polities is the one in which the benefit of his country is most entirely involved, and he wishes the position of his country to be impregnable. To be impregnable it must be sound; if his party represents to him his country, his party must be sound, and it concerns him much more closely to purify his own ranks than those of the enemy. Success is certain to the pure and true; success to falsehood and corruption, tyranny and aggression, is only the prelude to a greater and an irremediable fail."

PERCY GORDON.

November 2, 1888.

FOREIGN ALLEGIANCE OF FOREIGN GOODS

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to contribute the following to that history of the "Influence of Protection Doctrines upon the Operation of the Intelligence" which someone will surely write, after the present hysteria passes away and sanity returns. It is from a communication in the Minneapolis *Tribune* of October 29, and is an attempt to answer the argument that protection does not help the American laborer as long as the foreign laborer immigrates freely to compete with him:

"The labor that comes to American soil in the shape of human beings is, as a rule, animated by mind, and in consequence thereof thinks and soon becomes Americanized, while goods, wares, and merchandise never forsakes *sic* allegiance to foreign powers, but always remains foreign, and therefore loyal in results to the land that manufactured it *sic*."

The writer would seem to make allowance, by his phrase, "as a rule," for some human beings coming to American soil who are not manipulated by mind. He thus secures for himself in advance an asylum from all criticism. D.

CONFIRMATION

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I add, as a commentary on my last week's letter, some sentences from the *chronique* of M. Charles de Mazade in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of October 15:

"The recent journey of the President of the Republic, to Lyons, in Savoy, in Burgundy, may throw some useful light upon the real and inward feelings of the country. The President, held back by a certain constitutional precision, by an excess of reserve, perhaps beyond what public opinion demands, committed himself but little; but he was able to hear what was said to him, and there was almost everywhere the same feeling which finds its most happy expression in the discourse, as temperate as judicious, of the President of the Chamber of Commerce at Lyons, asking for the country only that protection which results from constitutional stability, from public order firmly maintained, from a good condition of the finances, from social peace propagated by that true liberty which is the guarantee of all rights and extends to all faiths."

And a few lines farther on:

"For ten years the evident palpable cause of all the parliamentary incoherencies, of all the financial disorders, of the legislative anarchy, is the progressive usurpation of a Chamber as presumptuous as ignorant, which has not ceased to place itself above the Constitution, which has wished to manage everything, without knowing how to do anything."

Is there not instruction and reproof for us in the affairs of France? Is it not true that, with all the abundance of our financial resources, with our large surplus in the Treasury, with all our immense material prosperity, there is through the country a feeling of uneasiness and distrust, owing to want of confidence in the ability of Congress—without leaders or any definite plan of action—to accomplish anything to good purpose?"

G. B.

BOSTON, November 5, 1888.

TEACHER AND COMMUNITY

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "C." whose letter in relation to "The Teacher and the Community" you published on October 18, speaks of the lack of individuality in teaching as caused largely by the custom of giving preference to teachers resident in the community. That this is true, no careful observer can doubt, and it is refreshing to know that there is at least one community in which there exists so nearly an ideal state as your correspondent depicts.

But the evil mentioned as derived from this sort of "protection to home industries" is but a small part of the damage done. The truth is, the methods of employing teachers in our public schools are but little better than those of filling Government offices. The school system needs "civil service reform" as much as the United States government. It is bad enough to have political parties running local candidates for members of the School Board, and to have these nominations worked for from precisely the same motives as Mike or Barney works for an alderman's seat, i.e., that he may use his position to make money. It is, for example, no uncommon thing to find men working for places on school boards because they are coal dealers and want the contract to supply the schools with coal, or plumbers, or building contractors, or real estate agents from motives equally obvious; but when we have in addition the custom of employing local talent for teachers, and thus bring into play the whole set of political, social, church, and family interests, then we have a truly deplorable result.

The evil makes itself manifest along two lines. (1) In the selection of teachers. Good teachers fail to obtain positions for lack of the requisite "influence," while poor ones succeed because of a father or uncle on the School Board, or because pushed by a certain church, or because of the backing of some social clique. Moreover, it is almost impossible to get rid of an inefficient teacher under such a system. I have in mind now a school in which are two grossly incapable teachers. The principal is well aware of their inefficiency, and finds his own efforts largely nullified by their presence; and yet, were he to endeavor to have them removed, he would stir up a perfect hornets' nest of church and social antipathies, which would probably damage the school more, at least for some time, than does the present poor teaching. Very likely, should he attempt to oust them, not having himself the same sort of "anchors to windward," he would be the one to go. Capable and conscientious superintendents are hampered almost beyond endurance by this custom. It would be difficult to exaggerate this aspect of the evil.

(2) Good teachers cannot do so good work in their own communities as elsewhere. It is well known that both ministers and teachers succeed best away from their "native seats." It is almost impossible to attain to that absolute impartiality necessary in a public servant, when among one's old friends and associates,

It is a great misfortune to a teacher "always to have known" certain families. In a word, the whole set of local interests and jealousies familiar to us all, but too many to enumerate and describe here, hamper the activity of the teacher, and form an incubus that is nonexistent in a strange town. TEACHER.

October 28, 1888.

THE PRATT FREE LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* for October 25, in speaking of the library to be given to this city under the provisions of Mr. Tilden's will, states that the only things approaching it in character are the Newberry Library at Chicago and the Boston Public Library. May I ask if the Pratt Library at Baltimore should not receive honorable mention with these? Its money value is less than either of the libraries referred to, though it is not inconsiderable, Mr. Pratt's gift being in all one million dollars, of which two-thirds will draw 7 per cent. interest perpetually. But in respect of its freedom to all classes it certainly has no superior. There are practically no restrictions whatever for actual citizens, while temporary residents in the city can obtain books on the same terms with citizens with much less formality than is necessary at the Boston Public Library.

It certainly could not be, in any fuller sense, "a library of the people." J. S. R.

NEW YORK, October 25, 1888.

TRANSLATION AT SIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The fact that several little text-books have been prepared of late, with annotated extracts for sight-translation, would seem to indicate "a felt want" on the part of teachers. The need of these books, however, is not very apparent, because a teacher can easily find short extracts in the books used by the classes. There is another form of sight-reading which I have employed with my classes, and which it may be worth while to suggest to other teachers. It consists of extracts from some modern Greek newspaper, written upon the board for the students to read. It is a very easy matter to make selections in which the deviation from the classic standard is exceedingly small. This plan has several important advantages over the reading of short extracts from the ancient authors. The students find it a pleasing change to see that their Greek can actually deal with the affairs of to-day, as well as with those of more than two millenniums ago. The freshness of modern life and modern interests is very helpful in giving a touch of zest and enthusiasm to what so many find a very dry study. To read, in very fair Greek, telegrams about the great events happening over the world, and comments on them, taken, it may be, from the London *Times* or the New York *Herald*, opens the eyes of many a student to the possibilities of his Greek.

A few of the various extracts our Freshmen and Sophomores had last session were, for example, statistics from the New York *Herald* about the number of cows in the United States, and the annual yield of milk, butter, and cheese; articles about the *Great Eastern*; about Volapük; about John Wanamaker's picture-gallery; about Adelina Patti's celebrated fan, with the sentences written on it by the Emperors of Russia and Germany, by Queen Victoria, M. Thiers, as President of the French Republic, and others; about Dickens, George Eliot, Abraham Lincoln. In short, almost anything which at the present day is note-

worthy among current events can be presented to students, in Greek which they would frequently scarcely recognize as not being good enough for Xenophon. At times I have seen students almost double themselves up laughing at jokes in Greek, an experience rather rare in the reading of any of the classic authors they study.

It is quite easy and very appropriate for the teacher to give his scholars in connection with these readings some idea of the structure of modern Greek and its chief departures from the classic norm. To all of which is to be added the important fact that students who have read even this little of modern Greek will be likely to have a keen appreciation of the fact that Greek is a *living language*. For, strange as it seems, it is not difficult to find intelligent people to whom the declaration that Greek is *not* a "dead" language comes as a sort of revelation. When you tell them that Greek is as truly a living language as English or French or German, they find it hard to take you seriously.

Respectfully,
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI.

A. H.

JOHN WISE OF IPSWICH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The note concerning this unappreciated worthy, printed in a recent number of the *Nation*, led me to consult the edition of his works published in 1860 by the Congregational Board of Publication. The introductory chapter, by Rev. J. S. Clarke, D.D., asserts that "some of the most glittering sentences in the immortal Declaration of Independence are almost literal quotations from this essay" ("A Vindication of the Government of New England Churches"). If this is true, it is time that Wise took his proper place in our political, as well as our religious annals.

The list of subscribers to the edition of 1772 contains the names of Mr. William Dawes of Boston, Mr. Ephraim Fairbank of Bolton, and Mr. Peter Jayne of Marblehead, each of whom took one hundred copies. But a more important name is that of Rev. Manasseh Cutler of Ipswich, properly of Ipswich Hamlet, now Hamilton. Did any of the wisdom of Wise pass through Cutler into the Ordinance of 1787?

Why, by the way, does Cutler not appear in the Stedman-Hutchinson "Library of American Literature"? In the volume where he would naturally figure, nearly seven pages are devoted to Eliza Southgate Bowne, who was merely a writer of entertaining letters. Cutler left behind descriptions of social life equally sprightly, besides records of scientific observation, weighty political papers, and written opinions on various religious topics. Surely, he was "an author," if quantity, quality, influence, and versatility are to be considered.

HENRY BALDWIN.
255 BROADWAY, October 26, 1888.

CONCERNING CERTAIN EPIGRAMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the interesting notice in your last number of the recently published volume of Dr. Sterrett, "An Epigraphical Journey in Asia Minor," occurs this sentence: "Nos. 243 and 245 are curious riddles; but as Dr. Sterrett gives them on the authority of a Greek physician, we shall hold them open to suspicion."

This was Dr. Sterrett's opinion about No. 233, and it certainly is justified, for it is made up of mutilated portions of two epigrams that are to be found in the "Anthologia Graeca

Palatina." First come the last three verses of Lib. xiv., Epig. 58, which are followed by the whole of Lib. xiv., Epig. 35, except part of its first word [*Ἄνθρωποι*] καὶ τ. λ.

No. 245 does not seem to be recognized by Dr. Sterrett. This also is to be found in Lib. xiv., Epig. 5, lacking the last line.

Very truly yours, HENRY W. HAYNES.
BOSTON, October 27, 1888.

Notes.

A CHOICE collection of books and papers relating to Lichens, left by the late Prof. Edward Tuckerman to the library of Amherst College, is to be kept apart as a memorial of the donor. Mr. Wm. L. Fletcher, the librarian, desires supplementary contributions of works, and a fund (say of \$1,000) sufficient to maintain the collection by additions and repairs.

Longmans, Green & Co. have nearly ready Walter Besant's "Eulogy of Richard Jefferies," author of "The Gamekeeper at Home" and other remarkable works.

Ticknor & Co. issue this month "The Other Side of War: With the Army of the Potomac. Letters from Headquarters of the Sanitary Commission during the Virginia Campaign of 1862," by Katharine Prescott Wormeley; "Pen and Powder," by Franc B. Wilkie, a war correspondent; "Vagrom Verse," by Charles Henry Webb ("John Paul"); "The Philistines," by Arlo Bates; and "Better Times," by the author of "The Story of Margaret Kent."

John B. Alden publishes directly Gogol's "Taras Bulba," translated by Jeremiah Curtin; and Daudet's "The Immortals."

Mr. F. J. Stimson's "First Harvests" will be issued in book form by Charles Scribner's Sons, who also announce Mommsen's "History of the Roman Republic," abridged by C. Bryants and F. R. Hendy. Their "Book-Buyer" for November has a frontispiece portrait of Mrs. Mary A. Ward, author of "Robert Elsmere."

Thomas Whittaker announces as the next volumes in the "Camelot Series" "The Teaching of Epictetus"; in the "Canterbury Poets," "Poems of Wild Life," edited by Charles G. D. Roberts; in the "Great Writers," a "Life of Heine," by William Sharp.

The publication of Mr. Lang's "Letters on Literature" has been postponed until the new year; but his volume of poems, "Grass of Parnassus," will be issued immediately.

In 1875 Mr. Grant Allen printed privately at Oxford a little pamphlet discussing certain difficulties in the current conception of energy; and he afterwards sketched out a more elaborate work, which was shown in 1885 to Mr. Edward Clodd, who embodied certain of its conclusions in "The Story of Creation." As these conclusions have been attacked, Mr. Grant Allen has determined to join in the controversy, and his "Force and Energy: a Theory of Dynamics," will be published here shortly by Longmans, Green & Co., preceded by an "Apology," in which the author modestly sets forth the circumstances of the book's preparation and publication.

Two of the seven volumes of the definitive edition of the Writings of John G. Whittier come to us from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Externally, the series is uniform with the Brownings published by the same firm, but the letter-press is much more open and inviting. The most venerable and endeared of our poets makes for the last time a classification of his verse, with such information concerning the basis and nature of it and the date at which it was written as is desirable. The prefatory

discourse is of markedly frequent occurrence in the first volume, "Narrative and Legendary Poems," less so in the second, "Poems of Nature; Subjective and Reminiscent; Religious," "Mogg Moggone," and other youthful and discarded poems, are relegated to an appendix in a subsequent volume. Whittier's prose writings will be included in the present series. A new and very interesting early likeness, of 1830, accompanies the first volume; one ten years younger the second. While we have in this instalment the poems which embody so much of New England and Quaker history and tradition, the landmarks of the great abolition struggle and an exquisite American portrait-gallery find their place in a succeeding volume or volumes. Whittier's admirers could hardly wish for a more beautiful monument than this Riverside Edition.

Five editions and two reprints of the same edition in twelve years bear witness to the standard quality of Prof. M. Foster's "Text-book of Physiology," of which we had occasion to notice the second edition just ten years ago. Macmillan & Co. have now issued Part I. of the fifth edition, relating to the blood, the tissues of movement, the vascular mechanism. The second and third parts will follow as soon as may be. Considerable revision has taken place, chiefly in the way of fuller elucidation of fundamental topics.

Mr. Charles Morris once more appears as a purveyor of literary readings in "Half Hours with the Best Foreign Authors" (J. B. Lippincott Co.). In four volumes he collects specimen translations from the Greek and Roman, the German and Scandinavian, though the Introduction makes no allusion to the latter, the French, the Italian, Spanish, etc. Each volume has a frontispiece portrait. The author's scheme is to begin with some brief general remarks on the literature under survey; the extracts then follow, without chronological or any other order, each generally preceded by a summary account of the author, the translator being sometimes indicated in the editorial note, sometimes appended. When an extract is too long, Mr. Morris cuts it down, with an abstract of the omitted part or parts. An index enables one to discover all the pieces taken from a given author. The editor has brought to his task industry enough, but neither remarkable learning, taste, nor critical ability. We shall not insist on omissions, though Ibsen cannot be found in Volume II., nor Fritz Reuter in Volume III. Both the older and the later Russian writers of distinction, however, are at least honored by remembrance in Volume IV. Taking the repast as offered, many will find it palatable; and all may remember that selection from accessible translations is a far different thing from selection from the whole range of the originals.

In a style uniform with their five-volume editions, royal quarto, of "Les Misérables" and "The Count of Monte Cristo," Geo. Routledge & Sons have just issued Sue's "Wandering Jew," in three volumes. The translator's name is not given. The nearly two hundred illustrations are by A. Ferdinandus, and clearly belong to another epoch than the present. But if special designs were out of the question, then we should have wished to see more discriminating borrowing. We have in mind a French edition far better furnished than this, whether as regards imagination, consistency of character-types, or draughtsmanship. In short, we have here neither true illustrations nor embellishments. The typography, on the other hand, for which the De Vinne Press is responsible, can be unqualifiedly praised. The binding is simple, in dark-green cloth.

Several reissues of well-known books are before us. The Library Edition of Besant and Rice's novels, which is being brought out by Dodd, Mead & Co., is continued with "Twas in Trafalgar's Bay, and Other Stories." Scribner & Welford put their imprint on an English-made volume combining "The Autobiography of Mark Rutherford" and "Mark Rutherford's Deliverance." Macmillan & Co. send us a new edition of "Edinburgh Picturesque Notes," by Robert Louis Stevenson. Its chapters are a series of papers that first saw the light in a magazine, with illustrations. The title well describes the book, which is not an ordinary guide-book. If it were, the text would be less interesting and less literary, and the illustrations would far might easily be better, and there would probably be a map for the reader's orientation. Mr. Stevenson makes no concessions to Edinburgh's climate or the new villa architecture, but in other respects he is a good citizen of the gray metropolis of the North. He will not hesitate to overpraise of Burns at the expense of Ferguson, "our Edinburgh poet."

"Jottings of Travel in China and Japan" (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), by Simon Adler Stern, contains twenty short chapters, giving the impressions of the author who recently made the trip. They touch lightly the surface of things, and convey the idea of a bundle of letters privately printed for the eyes of personal friends, rather than a book of information for the public. Mr. Stern's experiences seem to have been only those of the average passenger across the Pacific, and three brief appraisals on Chinese pirates, the Queen's jubilee, and Japanese dress have been published in the newspapers. The chapters on treaty revision in Japan and the railway problem in China are the most timely and important in this hasty souvenir of travel.

It is worthy of remark that the Tractarian movement in Oxford is followed in the same university by an interest in the philosophy of Hume. Two editions of this philosopher's works in comparatively recent years indicate the tendencies of thought in that reasonably conservative centre. That of Thomas Hill Green, with its able introduction, was the most important. Although the bulk of conservative minds, Green was a liberal in religion and politics. He was the original of "Grey" in "Robert Elsmere," and the influence of Hume upon him is remarked in the fact that he had surrendered miracles, and that he is represented as speaking of "the fairy tale of Christianity," when alluding to certain historical conceptions of it. Green's volumes, however, are scarcely accessible to the ordinary student, because of cost and size. Hence, a new edition in one volume, "Hume's Treatise of Human Nature," reprinted from the original Ed. in three volumes, and edited, with an Analytical Index, by L. A. Selby-Bigge, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of University College, Oxford. The Clarendon Press, New York. Macmillan. It is very convenient in form, with good binding, good paper, clear and excellent type. The analytical index is very complete, occupying some sixty pages, and though the editor apologizes for its length, the student will find it very valuable, if not indispensable. There are no notes or comments, only the text of Hume. The book will make an admirable work for the philosophical class-room, although it would have been greatly improved in this respect if a thorough system of notes had been added. Even as it is, however, the study of Hume is very greatly facilitated.

Cataloguers must count among their perplexities the proper entry of the novel attributed to George Sand, "Palaces Nourmashai," which Mr.

Low Vanderpoole is said to have translated "from the original French manuscript" (G. W. Dillingham). It is highly improbable that an inscribed work by this writer should first see the light in an English dress, and the internal evidence is wholly against the imputed authorship. Until proofs of genuineness are forthcoming, due to a writer unable to defend her own literary reputation would seem to require that her name should not be attached in catalogues to "Princess Nourmashai."

Unhappiest American additions to the Edinburgh series are Mr. Bret Harte's "Millionaire" & "Fough and Ready," Mr. Ginter's "Mr. Barnes of New York," Mrs. Burnett's "Sara Crewe," Mr. Marion Crawford's "With the Pimpernals," and Mark Twain's "Soliloquies from American History"—a very motley show, it would seem to an American.

Not to be partisan in our politics, *Pierre Loti*, for October 27 supplies a large-colored portrait of Gen. Harrison, as lately of President ("Colonel International News").

A French account of the late festivities at Pologna will be found in the October number of the *French International Art Encyclopédie*, from the pen of M. Georges Lafaye.

A striking portrait of the dramatist, Henrik Ibsen, is given with the tenth number of *The Stage* (No. 10), Leipzig. Wilhelm Friedrichs.

Many of our readers will be glad to learn of the promotion of Mr. F. W. Maitland, last December Professor of English Law at Cambridge in England, to the place of Downing Professor of Law. This is the oldest chair of law at Cambridge, it was established in 1801, and first occupied by Christian, the learned commentator upon Blackstone. Our readers have already been advised of the admirable work upon *Bracton's Note Book* and other records of our early law which Mr. Maitland has done. Much is expected of him.

The Slater Memorial Museum of Fine Art at New Haven, Conn., of which our readers have already had some account from us, is to be formally opened November 27, with an address by Prof. Clark Kent Norton.

The most notable feature of the November *Century* is the beginning, with this first number of a new volume, of Mr. Cole's series of engravings from the Italian masters. As the artist follows the historical order, this first instalment naturally brings before us specimens of Pre-Raphaelite art, with samples of the transitional style of Cimabue. With Mr. W. J. Stillman to furnish the historical and critical comments, and Mr. Cole's unsurpassed technical and artistic skill employed in the reproduction, the series promises to provide material and stimulus for popular art education of the greatest value. Mr. Cole's notes, based on long and profound study of his canvases, are landmarks of description and critical discrimination. The opening chapters of the "Romance of Holland" are of a high order. A prefatory note by Mr. Parkerian certifies to the historical accuracy of Mrs. Catherwood's story, and the sure style and skilfully handled material of the new writer speak for themselves. Mr. Kendall's Russian paper appeals to the reader's pity and indignation as strongly as any that have preceded it. It is not alone the physical sufferings of the convicts and political exiles, on their marches to Eastern Siberia, that make the system seem appalling, but the blind, suicidal way in which Russia is robbing herself of her best life. She buries alive the men who were born to be her leaders in science and literature, and condemns the gifted women who might become the mothers of the eminent men of the next generation, to such privations that

suicide often comes as the only escape. Nature does not thus ruthlessly destroy her most promising variations. Dr. Lyman Abbott writes a characteristic article on the "New Reformation," which will probably meet the fate of most mediating efforts in theology and get the buffets of both extremes. It must do good, however, for the *Century's* audience to hear so frank a theologian as Dr. Abbott; only, we share his shrewd suspicion that few of those who most need to hear him will read his article through. Mr. Halstead's "Gravelotite Witnessed and Revisited" will necessarily be compared with Gen. Sheridan's contemporaneous paper, and will suffer from the comparison. The editor has some lively passages, and, in some respects, outstrips the soldier; but the latter's clear straightforwardness and simplicity put him decidedly at the front, on the whole. After the fine writing in which Mr. Halstead pretty freely indulges in his descriptions of the battle, it is somewhat amusing, though perfectly natural, to find him asking Sheridan the next morning, "Please tell me what happened yesterday." Lord Nelson's portrait, with genius stamped on every line of it, ought not to go unmentioned, nor should his hitherto unpublished letters written on the Copenhagen expedition; they are in perfect keeping with all that we know of his eager and impetuous spirit.

—Three more issues by the English Dialect Society make the present year still further remarkable for its publications. One of them is a catalogue of the accessions to the Society's library (in the custody of the Manchester Free Reference Library) since 1880. These have increased the collection nearly one-half, so that the total number of works is 820. No fewer than 139 were added to the 352 already possessed relating to English counties. Besides this catalogue, we have received from Trübner & Co. a "Glossary of Berkshire Words and Phrases," by Maj. B. Lowsley, and a much larger "Glossary of Words Used in the Neighborhood of Sheffield," by Sidney Oldall Addy. The pronunciation and grammar of Berkshire are sufficiently peculiar to warrant the special attention which Maj. Lowsley gives them. Something of both is discernible in the example cited under the word *zaa* (saw): "'Ooll the Meuster be zo good, an' zo kind, an' zo obligin', an zo condescendin' as to len' we the mate-*zaa* vor to *zaa* our me-at!'" Initial *f* is always pronounced *v*, and initial *s* preceding a vowel (including *w* and *y*) has the sound of *z*. *Meat* and similar words may, as above, be made either monosyllables or dissyllables. Maj. Lowsley goes extensively also into manners and customs, superstitions, and folk-lore generally. One of the "sayings" is of the superfluous or unsuitable, "as much as a twoad (toad) wants a zide pocket." It would, if we had room, be easy to quote a large number of amusing expressions. "A had *just about* a tumble" is Berkshire for "He had a very severe tumble"—our colloquial "quite," but stronger. "Cupboard love" denotes the affection which children have for those who give them sweetmeats, etc. Here is a good definition in dialect:

"A chun be called a '*habbit-de-hoye'*
As be short of a man but meor'n a bwoy."

—Mr. Addy, too, has much to tell in his introduction about Sheffield customs, and he is an innovator (so far as we remember) in respect of inserting local place-names among the common parts of speech in his Glossary. This he does very extensively, and, we should suppose, most usefully, since he quotes when possible from old deeds and other instruments in which a name occurs. Sheffield he interprets

to mean "the field of division." "America," the name of two fields, is accounted for in one case by reference to its remoteness from the village. It is of interest to notice that "the Derwent is still called the *Darwin* and also the *Darrand*." Mr. Addy argues plausibly in favor of the view that the author of the "Catholicon Anglicum," perhaps the oldest English dictionary, was a Yorkshireman; and he fain would make him also native of Rotherham, and give a name to him. Mr. Addy's equipment for the glossary proper seems inferior to that of some of his predecessors, and his remarks occasionally have a touch of naïveté. Reference to earlier volumes in this series would have explained to him the term *whipped* (of milk) as meaning "wheyed." The Sheffield dialect contains numerous quaint concepts, as *manners-bit*, the portion of a dish left by the guests that the host may not feel himself reproached for insufficient preparation; *thrift-pot*, a savings bank; *waistcoat-piece*, a breast of mutton; *dateless*, with memory gone; *betittered*, excited, frightened, overcome with pleasing excitement; etc. *Clever* denotes "physically strong"; *fat-com*, a good tempered, well-fed rural beauty, not unconscious of her power of attraction, nor unwilling to receive a chaste expression of admiration; etc. *Christian* is used of a man in contradistinction to a beast of the field. Both poetically and truthfully, "one is said to be his *own man* when he is in his usual health." It is odd to find *wous* in vogue with the meaning 'sense, ability,' and to be told that it may not be the university slang. We refrain from further quotation with this locution for "how much soever": "Choose how much I did for him, I never could please him."

—A quarto pamphlet of twenty-eight pages, entitled "Objects and Work of the Selden Society, with an Account of the Principal Classes of Manuscripts with which the Society Proposes to Deal," may be obtained by any one interested (price one shilling) from the publisher, Bernard Quaritch, No. 15 Piccadilly, London. It sets out at length the objects of the Society, one of which is the collection of material for dictionaries of "Anglo-French" and law terms; and Prof. W. W. Skeat furnishes a "scheme" for the proper collection of such materials, with practical directions for the transcription of words and quotations. This scheme, together with the Prospectus of the Society, was published in the London *Law Times* for April 23, 1887 (pp. 449-451). Prof. Skeat uses the term "Anglo-French," he explains, as the best one, "from a philological point of view," to distinguish the language of the French manuscripts written in England from the Norman-French, from which Anglo-French gradually diverged. Prof. Skeat's directions for the preparation of word slips furnishes another illustration of the slowness with which English scholars realize the full benefits of that beneficent invention, the card system. The best size of card to use is given as seven by four and one-half inches, but these dimensions are apparently accidental, being those of the commonest size of English note-paper, which it is recommended should be used—even the utilization of unused halves of old letters being suggested. After the sheets have been written upon, they are to be alphabetized, and then tied up in bundles. Here we have three distinct sources of waste. The sheets of note-paper, to be kept of the proper size, must be cut into halves by hand with a paper-knife—a useless labor in this age of machine work; besides, by this method one edge is left rough, which inter-

feres with the proper manipulation of the finished sheets. The preparation of scholarly work upon second-hand paper is poor economy. Such labor is wearing at best, and it is not wise to tax the tired brain with the added strain caused by the vexation of trying to write on paper which has been folded and crumpled—a strain which is by no means insignificant, as most writers will have learned. Furthermore, the handwriting will, of necessity, be poorer, resulting in increased chances of error; and this last is a consideration of great importance in work of the kind contemplated. Finally, the method used in arranging and preserving the completed cards is of the very first importance, and tying them up in bundles is about the worst possible way, especially where the nature of the work in preparation demands constant reference to them.

—It is astonishing how slowly the European mind seizes upon the fact that these cards will stand upon their lower edges in drawers or trays, without other support than that which each card affords to its neighbor. In one of the large libraries of Great Britain, for example, a catalogue of books had been prepared on cards which were kept considerably more than one hundred thousand of them in beautiful cases of drawers, each drawer being about one inch in depth, and nicely divided into compartments of a size corresponding to the cards, except that sufficient space was left at one end to allow the insertion of the fingers when the contents were to be removed. Here the cards reposed, in suitable bunches, flat on the sides, it being necessary to remove a whole parcel every time a single card was to be referred to. If these cards had been placed upright in drawers of a suitable depth, not only would there have been a great saving of space, but each card would have been entirely accessible, and could have been referred to without a moment's loss of time, and without the least disturbance of the cards coming before or after it. It could have been removed and replaced in a few seconds, or changed to another position, with no disarrangement of the remaining cards, while new ones could have been added *ad libitum* without any difficulty; whereas, in the case of the catalogue mentioned above, the addition of more cards to any one parcel than the depth of the drawer would allow, necessitated the shifting of the cards in every compartment beyond the one where the additional cards were placed—a vexatious labor, involving great loss of time. Another frequent mistake in the use of cards for catalogue, dictionary, or index work is that of having them made of too thick paper. In no case, even though a large size is desirable, or clippings are to be pasted on them, is it necessary to have the cards thicker than the one-hundredth part of an inch. If they are cut by machine, as they ought to be, and consequently of a uniform size, with smooth edges, they can readily be used no thicker than two hundred or three hundred to the inch.

—Booksellers and librarians will rejoice to receive the eleventh volume of Lorenz's "Catalogue Général de la Librairie Française," forming the subject-index to the two previous volumes. It is made in what is called the "dictionary" style, another testimony (of the more importance because appearing in the land of Brunet, whose systematic arrangement has been so widely copied) to the superior serviceableness of an alphabetic arrangement of subjects. There is, however, one not objection-

able departure from strict dictionary rules. Under "Poésies," "Romans," "Théâtre (Pièces de)," are alphabetically arranged lists of titles of poems, novels, and plays. In a pure dictionary catalogue these would be dispersed throughout the alphabet. The pleasure of getting this index will be somewhat dimmed by the announcement that the author now gives up the work, after twenty-seven years of labor. He expresses the hope that he shall find a successor. It will be very unfortunate for all who have to do with French literature if he does not. For the issues of nearly half a century (1840-1885) his work is a sure and easy guide; what should one do without it? The utility of continuing it ought to tempt some bibliographical enthusiast and martyr—for the pecuniary reward must certainly be slight. That the labor is not, may appear from Lorenz's assertion that he sent proofs to all the authors whose works were contained in his last two volumes (IX and X), some 6,000 circulars in all, and received replies from between 4,500 and 5,000.

—The October number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons) opens with another long passage from the "Notes et Souvenirs" of M. Ludovic Halévy, extending this time from August 11, 1851, to January 19, 1852. It would perhaps be ungrateful to question whether these delightful notes were ever taken, even in the most rudimentary form, either at the dates affixed to them or at any other period; but the reader cannot help feeling that many of the events and personages of the brilliant collection here offered to his attention have nothing to distinguish them from the purely literary creations of the author. The comedy is as brilliant in one case as in the other, and no one will be likely to find any fault with M. Halévy that his "Souvenirs" are presented in so attractive a form. There are two very readable stories in the present number. In "Le Lotus rouge" a young captain of Zouaves and his orderly, and a young Chinese girl and her attendant, play their parts in one of M. Gaston Bergeret's light and amusing little comedies, in which the only thing real is the undercurrent of scarcely indicated sentiment characteristic of his writing. "La Déjanira" is by a less known writer, M. Alain de Mériton. It is a story of Padua in the middle of the last century, in which music and jealousy are the principal motive powers. There is a charm in the telling of the tale and in the presentation of the scenes in which it passes that makes it pleasant reading. The most valuable as well as the most interesting article in the number is the second part of "Les Canons anciens et modernes," by General Thomass. The startling progress made since the Franco-Prussian war in everything relating to artillery is told with a rapidity and precision that suggest well-executed military manoeuvres, and add to one's interest in the statements made the pleasure caused by the complete harmony between the subject and the manner in which it is treated. The author in the end only states, without resolving, the well-known paradox, that the perfection of all the engines of destruction of which he has been writing is a step towards the realization of universal peace; but the facts he sets forth seem to indicate that the nations of Europe are now engaged in a new kind of war, in which physically destructive battles are superseded by struggles, of which the effects are both moral and financial, in the invention of more and more terrible and costly engines of destruction. It remains a question as yet whether this new warfare is any less de-

structive of human happiness and progress than the old.

THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE CIVIL WAR.

History of the Civil War in America. By the Comte de Paris. Vol. iv. \$yo, pp. 681. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

The translation of the continuation of the Comte de Paris's "History of the Civil War" appears in advance of the regular French edition. A note by Col. Nicholson, the American editor, tells us that this volume "contains, without abridgment, the seventh volume of the French edition, and so much of the eighth volume as was contained in the manuscript which the distinguished author carried with him when he was banished from France." It is also intimated that the preparation of the work is indefinitely suspended.

Irrespective of political questions between the Orleans prince and the French Republic, American readers will sincerely regret the suspension of historical work by the Comte de Paris. The fairness of his spirit has been manifest in every chapter, his military criticism is rarely at fault, his powers of description give his pages great vividness and stirring life, and his sympathy with the national cause for which he fought is sincere and outspoken, while he is by no means a blind partisan. No other historian of the Civil War can compare with him in grasp of the subject as a whole and in judicious proportioning of the parts. We have numerous good histories of campaigns, and are accumulating much valuable material for a complete history; but, for some years to come, we shall be likely to look to the Comte de Paris for the formal history of the great struggle. This would make it the more unfortunate if his work is destined to remain a fragment.

There is this comfort, however, in the matter—that the point to which he had brought his narrative when he left France was a natural period in the history. The present volume brings it down to the appointment of Gen. Grant to the command, under the President, of all the armies of the nation. It tells of the campaigns of Chickamauga and of East Tennessee, of Missionary Ridge and of Knoxville, of Gilmore's operations before Charleston, and of Banks's Red River expedition. It closes the period of multifarious scattered efforts, and prepares the way for the last act in the drama, when our Eastern army and our Western—Grant before Richmond, and Sherman from Chattanooga to Raleigh by way of Atlanta—concentrated the attention of the civilized world. It would be impossible to find a point at which a writer could more easily stop, if he must stop short of the end than that which the historian has now reached. The volumes already published make a work in themselves, covering the period when the direction of our armies was in the hands of McClellan and Halleck, the assumed theoretic experts in the art of war, before they passed to the control of Grant, the hasty, inexorable, and indomitable soldier who had no academic standing worth speaking of.

Looking at these four volumes together, it is not difficult to see that the Comte de Paris has predilections which modify his views, notwithstanding the manifest fairness of his purpose. He has what it is not unjust to call prejudices, both political and military, and his military prejudices may be subdivided as personal and as between the regular and volunteer officers. It would have been very strange if his mind had not been more or less warped, considering

the circumstances of his connection with our army. He was an aide-de-camp of McClellan during the Peninsular campaign, and then returned to France. He was a very young man, susceptible to the personal charm of his chief and to the influences which prevailed at headquarters. He was there accustomed to hear Mr. Lincoln spoken of in habitual terms of gross contempt, and Mr. Stanton as an unprincipled political adventurer who had been made Secretary of War through McClellan's friendship, only that he might seek to ruin the man by whose aid he had mounted to power. At the same headquarters it was a fixed opinion that McClellan had no second as a general, being the only man in the country competent to conduct a great army. Another article of faith was that only the officers of the regular army had any claim to be considered soldiers, and that, even of these, a comparatively small number included all that should have aspirations beyond the command of a brigade. When the air was saturated with such notions, maintained with passionate earnestness by the younger men, and more or less openly avowed by all, the wonder is, not that the young French prince should have been influenced in his view of American affairs by this medium through which he necessarily saw them, but that, in his later studies, he should have risen so far above them as to leave comparatively little trace of their effect.

Yet there are traces. He blames Mr. Lincoln's retention of McDowell's corps near Washington in the spring of 1862, while he does not blame McClellan's dismission of the condition on which the Government assented to the Peninsular campaign, viz., that a fixed number of troops should be left for the protection of the capital. The general tone adopted towards the Administration is, in all military matters, at least deplorable. In the volume before us, the tardiness of Rosecrans's movements towards Chattanooga in 1863 is ascribed to the avarice of the Government, because Grant and Burnside had not been put in motion to support his flanks in July. "One month," it is said, "would have sufficed, if the direction of these manœuvres had been intrusted to one head only, and not to three generals under the pedantic and annoying control of the small Aulic Council at Washington." The intimation here is that, although Halleck was the responsible general-in-chief, there was also a habitual consultation by the President and Secretary of War with other military men at the capital, and that this was mischievous in its effects. This was one of the common matters of complaint at McClellan's headquarters in 1862, and originated with the consultation by Mr. Lincoln with McDowell, Franklin, and Meigs, when McClellan was ill in the December previous. Gen. Hitchcock was substituted for Franklin in the gossip of subsequent years. There was nothing resembling that bugbear of European soldiers, the Austrian Aulic Council. It was both the right and the duty of the President, as commander-in-chief, to enlighten himself by consultation with the members of his official staff or other military officers on duty at Washington. After a general was assigned to a command in the field, he was allowed as large latitude as is ever given to such commanders. In the Austro-Prussian war, Manteuffel commanded a separate army in the Rhine valley, whilst Moltke was with King William in Bohemia, and the orders to the former were not less definite than those sent by Halleck to Rosecrans. We should not quarrel with the author if he argued that Halleck was not Moltke's equal, but we cannot admit that the case was one of an Aulic Council.

Again, in the criticism of Burnside's campaign, the "Washington Government" is charged with sacrificing the true military end of the movement to politics. In a sense, this is true. It was a question of high politics as well as of Mr. Lincoln's sympathy with the noble loyalists of East Tennessee. It would be easy to state this so that no blame would be attached to the President's action under such motives, even if a military man disagreed with him; but we cannot approve of attributing it to the low side of political conduct, as the author does when he says, "True military interest was sacrificed to the desire of securing a politic result which might be praised in the newspapers and applauded by the multitude." The truth is, that the military view was sacrificed to the political in ordering the movement at all, and not so much in the orders given to Burnside after he had reached Knoxville. Buell had pointed out, in the fall of 1861, that the only way to liberate East Tennessee was by an army moving from Nashville upon Chattanooga, and nothing could be better evidence of his sound military judgment. He analyzed the problem, showing the impossibility of sustaining an army there by a line of wagon communication over the mountains two hundred miles long. Burnside's soldiers learned the truth of this to their cost when they were starving and naked in the winter of 1863-64, before railroad communication could be extended to them. But the loyal mountaineers had burned their ships as soon as the war began, and had been hunted and harried and hanged from that time till the national forces occupied the valley. It was not low politics to be willing to do even unmilitary things for their rescue.

The personal predilections of the author appear gracefully in losing no opportunity to praise those whom he had known in the Potomac army, and not unmercifully when he condones or apologizes for the faults they may have committed in later campaigns. He is, however, true to history in matters of fact whenever they are known to him, and even his friendship for McClellan does not make him conceal the fatal defect of constantly and grossly overrating the opposing army. As a good "McClellan man," he has no mercy for Halleck, and can see no good in him. We could more easily agree with him in this were not the two men so alike in mental constitution that a list of the faults and weaknesses of one would pretty well answer for the other. There was no comparison in their personal attractiveness, but this counts for little in a critical estimate of their performance of public duty. The sharp contrast in the tone used towards them by the author must therefore be set down in good part to the personal predilection already mentioned.

The Comte de Paris can hardly be said to have known much of the volunteer officers of our army. His service with them in a single campaign, and that the first one made by the Army of the Potomac, could hardly enable him to form any accurate judgment of their quality. It was the well understood policy of McClellan to concentrate in that army the largest possible number of regular officers, and they were proportionately much more numerous than in the Western armies. Gen. Scott had begun the organization of forces for the war, with the settled opinion that it was to be, like the brief conflict with Mexico in 1848, a war in which volunteers would not have time to learn the soldier's trade, and must be regarded as undisciplined auxiliaries to be used in a subordinate way to assist the smaller body of regular troops. McClellan modified this so far as to aim at forming a large army of volun-

teers, officered, as far as possible in places above regimental commands, by regular officers. One who accepted the views current at headquarters of the Potomac army in its first campaign, could scarcely credit the change which a year or two of constant field-work would make. There remains, throughout all the volumes of the history before us, a perceptible difference of manner in speaking of officers of the two kinds; it is probably unintentional, but it is noticeable. An illustration will best make it evident.

The author details with fulness and unquestionable good faith two unfortunate expeditions—that of the cavalry under Gen. Sooy Smith, intended to coöperate with Gen. Sherman in the Meridian expedition, and the Red River expedition under Gen. Banks. In both he takes the unfavorable view of the performance of duty by the responsible commander. In the first he limits himself to such criticism as is strictly necessary to reach his judicial conclusion, and makes no general comment whatever upon the character of the officer as a soldier or a man. In the second, however, one cannot avoid the impression that volunteer officers as a class are criticized over Gen. Banks's shoulders. The relation of the expedition to the purpose of bringing out cotton from the Red-River country, leads to mention of cotton speculators, who are said to have been the "scourge" of the Western army, "wherever the honest and energetic chiefs, imbued by their education with true military spirit, such as Grant and Sherman, could not nip the evil at its root. These speculators," it is added, "were too often spared by generals who had the fault of mingling political matters with the duties of their command." The contrast instituted between generals of military education and political generals is obvious. If, however, we inquire who had been the objects of severest criticism (justly or unjustly), we must answer Frémont, Ormsby Mitchel, and Butler, of whom two had been regulars. A subsequent chapter narrates the Florida expedition under Gillmore and Seymour for a similar political purpose, equally unfortunate, and condemned also by the author as unmilitary; but no intimation is made that the regular officers who conducted it were therefore political generals.

In strictly military comparisons, there is the same disparaging contrast. We are told that the Confederate Gen. Richard Taylor was eager to take the "first opportunity to measure his strength with his adversary, of whose military inexperience he was but too well aware." So, when Banks was superseded by Canby, the author remarks that "the authority with which he (Canby) was invested, and that which his vast experience conferred upon him, were guarantees that henceforth the Federal Armies of the Far West were going to be handled with a thoroughness which up to that time had been lacking." The contrast is in both cases based on the "inexperience" of Banks; yet it is a simple historical fact that Banks had had more experience in handling large bodies of troops in actual war than either Taylor or Canby. In the expedition to the Texas coast preceding this to the Red River, the author has very frankly given the evidence, and stated the conclusion that, both in sound military conception and in practical execution, Banks's ideas were superior to Halleck's, and were well carried out.

On the Red River expedition, Gen. Franklin was second in rank to Banks, and Gen. Stone was his chief-of-staff. Unless it were shown that these officers were excluded from his consultations, it would be presumed that the organization and movement of the army were not wholly Banks's work. But in this, as well

as in the tactical handling of the troops at the battle of Mansfield, the prominent subordinates are exonerated from responsibility and blame, and the "ignorance of the true principles of warfare" on the part of the General is made to account for all that was untoward. The same sweeping condemnation follows each step, till the last one is characterized as "the finishing stroke of disgrace for the general-in-chief." It would be too long a task to analyze the campaign and point out the debatable points in the criticism. We think it enough to say that the tone of the whole, when compared with that used in regard to the other commanders of expeditions mentioned, seems to show that the same standard of judgment of principals and subordinates is not used; and the assumption of Banks's inexperience and ignorance is made a reason (unconsciously, no doubt) for saddling upon him many more sins than his own.

It is time that it should be distinctly recognized that three years of actual experience in a great war and in responsible commands was, for a man of intelligence and of courage, a school in military art in comparison with which any academic preparation is insignificant. Grant explicitly and most broadly recognizes this in his "Personal Memoirs," and declares that at the close of the Vicksburg campaign such men as Logan and Blair were every way fit to command armies. European wars attest the same principle. Moreau and Hoche and Ney are too brilliant examples of men passing from civil employment to successful military careers to be overlooked by a French writer, if Americans should not think of them. It is the first step which costs, and the advantage of what in this country has been rather rashly called military education is found in the beginning of an unprecedented struggle, and not after it has continued through several campaigns; after that time, men may safely be left to stand on the merits of their conduct, considered by itself, without reference to their antecedents in time of peace. Our civil war showed the wreck of many reputations among those assumed by a false standard to be pre-eminently fit to lead armies, and gave solid ground for the conclusion that no man can be called a general till he has stood the test of responsible command when the lives of men and the fortunes of his country depended on his action.

We do not now discuss the question how far the judgment of incompetency against Gen. Banks would be modified by applying to him the same canons of criticism, with the same presumptions in his favor, which are applied to Halleck, Gillmore, Seymour, Sooy Smith, Franklin, or Stone. We only say that this does not seem to have been quite completely done in the volume before us. With the limitations thus indicated, the high praise to be given the author for clearness of vision, for industry of investigation, and for an earnest purpose to judge fairly, cannot easily be overstated. There are some apparent slips in translation, but the delay of the original edition would make any statement of them merely conjectural. The general current of the narrative is lively and attractive, and the vivid picturing of the several campaigns makes fascinating reading of the whole work.

SOME HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Warwick Brooks's Pencil Pictures of Child Life. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Fairy Lilian, and Other Poems. By Alfred Tennyson. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

The Hurtle Song, and Other Poems. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Rough Life and the Hunting Trail. By Theodore Roosevelt. Illustrated by Frederic Remington. The Century Co.

Sundry Rhymes from the Days of our Grandmothers. Collected and illustrated by George Wharton Edwards. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

The Diving History of John Gilpin. By William Cowper. Illustrated by H. Rosa. George Routledge & Sons.

THESE far the holiday books of the year seem to be of a lighter mould than those to which we have become accustomed of late years. Perhaps the publishers feel that the putting out of elaborate and expensive books for this season has been overdone, and have called a halt for the present; perhaps we have only the skirmish line to deal with as yet, and the heavy battalions are to come. At any rate, we do not see any of those volumes of serious artistic importance which this time of year has been wont to bring forth.

The slightest of all in mere physical bulk, yet the weightiest in artistic metal, is the dainty little volume containing some twenty-eight photographic reproductions of pencil sketches—most of them of children—by the late Warwick Brookes. The text, by T. Letherbrook, a personal friend of the artist, gives us a glimpse of a singularly sweet and winning character, and some account of a sturdy and laborious life. Mr. Brookes seems to have been almost entirely self-taught. Born in 1808, the son of a poor calico printer, he was taken from school at nine years old to aid his father in his work as what is known as a "tear boy," whose duty is "to dip a brush in color and to keep supplied the color-cloth on which the printer daubed his block before he applied it to the fabric." While still at this work, some of his drawings fell into the hands of his employer, who placed him as an apprentice in the designing-room. By the time he had become a journeyman his father seems to have died, and the support of his mother fell upon him. To support her first, and his wife and children later, he worked steadily at his trade until his long last illness began in 1865, and it was in the leisure left by this employment that his artistic work was done. In 1838 a night-school for drawing was established in Manchester by the efforts of that singular being, B. R. Haydon, and this school Brookes attended for five years. Then he and others founded a school of their own which was carried on for more than twenty years. He never seems to have had a studio or even an easel, but worked standing, holding his paper in his hand. His models were his own children. When his long illness began, some of his drawings were, for the first time, published by his friends, and attracted the attention of artists and laymen. He made many warm friendships with the most eminent men in England, and received a pension from the Government. He died in 1882.

His art is certainly very interesting. It is not marked, as it was not to be expected it should be, by great force or by academic correctness; sometimes it is curiously feeble. His crowded compositions are weak, as is his landscape; and occasionally there is a visible preoccupation with the style of the classic or post-classic period of Italian art, while again a modern German influence will seem to have commanded him. He is at his best in drawings of one or two childish figures without background or accessories. Some of these are exceptionally delicate and refined in execution, and full of

subtle and natural expression. His children are perhaps a trifle too angelic—they are certainly not "of the earth earthy"—but the gentle and sweet side of child nature could hardly be better given. In some of the drawings, the vague stare of very small babies is capitally rendered. Mr. Brookes is not a commanding personality in art, but he is a personality well worth making acquaintance with, and this little book deserves the popularity it is likely to attain, at least with all mothers of children. The reproductions by Mr. Kurtz are capital, and of an accuracy and fine fidelity beyond the reach of wood-engraving.

Whatever Mr. Brookes's drawings may lack, they at least make up a book possessing the quality of unity of purpose and of style; but the very genius of higgledy-piggledy seems to have presided at the construction of the two publications that come to us from Estes & Lauriat. Fourteen artists of various talent and degrees of talent are represented by the illustrations of "Fairy Lillian, and Other Poems"; and their drawings not only bear no relation to each other, but seem to bear very little to the text. There is plenty of cleverness and of ability, but it is cleverness and ability wasted for want of intelligent direction. Illustration of well known poetical compositions is always dangerous; but when the whole series of designs is unified by one mind and one purpose, it may impress one with its own right to existence independently of the text upon which it is grafted. Here the drawings are like the pictures in an exhibition, each to use a Gallicism swearing at its neighbors, and each losing, rather than all gaining, in effectiveness by their proximity; they must be taken separately, and, so taken, their inefficiency as interpretations of the poetry is the more marked. This piecemeal character of the work is distracting enough, but the confusion is worse confounded by the details of book-making. There is not a picture in the book that is printed in the middle of the page. An ill-advised ingenuity has been shown in spotting the illustrations irregularly upon the leaves, and surrounding each with an annoying decoration in pale gray, or in designing them of odd and unsymmetrical shapes.

The second book from the same publishers is worse, for it has not even any discoverable unity in the text itself. It contains short poems by Tennyson, Goethe, Moore, Longfellow, and Scott, and the selection cannot even be accounted for by the exigencies of illustration, for one of the poems appears without any illustration at all. The drawings range from mediocrity downwards.

The other books on our table may be more rapidly dismissed. Both Mr. Roosevelt's sketches of Western life and Mr. Remington's illustrations are too well known through the pages of the *Century Magazine*, in which they first appeared, to need much notice here. It is enough to say of the latter that, while not in any serious sense works of art, they are capable and spirited illustrations. The book is handsomely printed on heavy paper, with wide margins, and somewhat fantastically bound. Mr. George Wharton Edwards's illustrations of the wofully moral ballads he has gathered together from the Taylor family, are superficially clever and evidently imitative of Abbey, while Mr. H. Rosa's illustrations of "John Gilpin" are not even superficially clever, and are equally evidently imitated from Caldecott.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

Gospel lessons of family affection and of self-denial, of courage and of enterprise, are taught in "Raymond Kershaw," by Maria McIntosh

(G. Roberts Bros.). This is the narrative of a struggle with limited means by a family suddenly bereft of their supporter. It is very well told and in a sweet spirit, the charm of which will perhaps be as much heightened to some readers as marred to others by the Epicopolitan coloring.

An entirely charming story, entitled "The Captain's Dog," has been, not literally translated, but "done into English" by Huntington Smith from the French of Louis Emanu. T. A. Crowell & Co. The dog's character and intelligence are drawn by a loving hand; his human companions pleasantly sketched; and the incidents of the story told with grace, humor, and *esprit*. One or two of the illustrations, representing the hero, really add to the value of the book, but as a general thing they have little merit.

Young girls will thank Mrs. J. W. Davis for her excellent translation from the German of Eva Hartner's story called "Pythia's Pupils" (Routledge). It is most refreshingly different from the ordinary type of stories for girls. The scene is a small German city, and the heroines are members of a working class. Their culinary experiences, their friendship for each other, their domestic life, are all related with engaging simplicity and vivacity, and they themselves are delightful specimens of clever and kind-hearted girlhood minus the intense self-consciousness of the American maiden. Pythia's fear of her father will seem singular to our young Atlantic daughters, but it only adds to the quaintness of the book. It is a pity that we have not more such stories, so firm morally, so quiet and healthy in tone. The translator's style is very clear and pleasant.

Mrs. Champney has interwoven with some personal impressions of the West others gained from reading, and embodied them in a story called "Howling Wolf and his Trick Fox" (D. Lothrop Co.). Indian scenes, legends, and superstitions appear plentifully. We find also some illustrations of the white man's cruelty to the Indian. The story opens well, but drags later on. At times it taxes severely the reader's notions of probability, and once or twice degenerates into positive silliness. On the whole, it is moderately interesting.

An absurd story, written by Selden R. Hopkins, and called "The Young Prince of Commerce" (D. Lothrop Co.), has for its object to teach matters of business and explain financial terms and operations. No doubt, a person ignorant of such things may learn considerable from its pages; but the instruction would have been given far better without a silly setting of fiction, and, moreover, should have been clearer and fuller.

Fairyland lacks its due enchantment when its charms are catalogued. "Brownies and Bogles," by Louise Imogen Guiney (D. Lothrop Co.) is not, as one might fancy from glancing at its pretty pictures of elves, a collection of stories, but seems an attempt to give children a smattering of folk-lore by classifying the "little people" who at different times and places have been supposed to exist. The authoress has done her best to enliven her book by sprightly comment and description, intermingled with accounts of fairy doings and occasionally the outline of a special story. Nevertheless, those for whom it is written will hardly have the patience to read it; and why should they? The virtue which would carry them through its tediousness would do them better service in some other field.

"Jack in the Bush, or, A Summer on a Salmon River," by Robert Grant (Boston: Jor-

dan, Marsh & Co.), recounts the exploits, on the York and St. John Rivers in Lower Canada, of a party of six boys, taken for the occasion by a self-sacrificing gentleman, who was a sound sportsman and a master of the art of properly governing the youth in his charge. The author knows about salmon fishing, and is perfectly familiar with the phenomena of Canadian woods-life. His book is instructive, interesting, healthy reading from beginning to end.

The same cannot be said of 'The Search for the Star,' another boys' book, by Edward Willett (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The story is of the journey of a party of boys to the headwaters of the Penobscot in search of an improbable man who has stolen an apocryphal ornament from their parents. They kill moose, deer, bears, wild-cats (as the author calls panthers), "Indian devils," which are animals of great size and ferocity, till now unknown, and have various other adventures, nearly all so palpably invented and so badly described as to awaken no feeling save one of indignation in the reader that such trash can be printed on any except political topics and just before an election.

One book, which seems to have been originally intended for two, is 'Wrecked in Labrador' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The wreck appears only in the second part, but in both we have an account of visits made to the coast of Labrador by people who are represented as enjoying greatly the opportunities for fishing, etc., offered by that region. The author, Winfrid A. Stearns, states that much of the story is a transcript from his own diary. He would have made a briefer and better book if he had not forgotten that many things interesting to one's self appear very trivial and tedious to the general reader; moreover, the style is poor, and the language often ungrammatical.

G. P. Putnam's Sons give us a handsome volume, well and appropriately illustrated, in Margaret Vere Farrington's 'Tales of King Arthur and His Knights of the Round Table.' This is pleasantly written, though not always with sufficient care; and if our young people will put up with some inevitable monotony, it will give them a good idea of various of the Arthurian legends. It is, of course, impossible, in treating material of this kind, to avoid some presentation of ideas which we dislike to put before boys and girls, but these our author has touched very lightly. Indeed, a believer in literary candor would be tempted to desire the postponement until adult age of a kind of reading which necessitates such caution. The preface to the book, which aims to give an idea of the rise of this legendary matter, is less clear than it should be.

Denkmäler des klassischen Altertums. Von A. Baumeister. Munich: R. Oldenbourg. 1885-1888.

AMERICAN scholars are often heard, after their return from a few years of study at one or other of the great European universities, to lament the absence at home of the unlimited facilities for investigation to which they have become accustomed abroad. Few, perhaps, reflect that nineteen-twentieths of their German fellow-students, after an equally brief or even briefer sojourn among the museums and libraries of Berlin, Munich, or Vienna, find their professional engagements at small country colleges often in no wise better equipped than our own, making fully equal exactations on the time of their instructors, and practically quite as remote from the coveted facilities of the metropolitan university. The play of the 'Monu-

ments of Classical Antiquity' was drawn up with special reference to the needs of these teachers. This does not exclude an appeal to cultivated lovers of antiquity of all classes, notably among artists, collectors, and literary amateurs. No one, in these days, can be expected to take all the publications devoted to the elucidation of the concrete side of antiquity and the reporting of the almost daily discoveries made in this field. Still less can any individual dream of owning all the sumptuous folios that illustrate the topography of ancient cities and the varied marvels of ancient art. Most of these works are out of print, and can therefore be obtained, if at all, only at fancy prices. To comprise in one publication either the whole field, or the most captivating aspects of what the French so aptly designate under the term *Panoplie de figures*—this has been one of the great practical problems in the advancement of learning. Each generation of scholars, almost ever since the revival of learning, has felt the want, and has offered a solution of its own.

The name of "Monuments" is itself a traditional title. The first comprehensive work of the sort was the learned Bernard de Montfaucon's 'L'antiquité expliquée et représentée en figures,' which came out at Paris, from 1719 to 1724, in fifteen folio volumes. Its modern parallel, Daremberg and Saglio's great 'Dictionnaire,' gives little promise of advancing far beyond the first three letters of the alphabet. The idea of a selection was uppermost in Winckelmann's 'Monumenti antichi edifici' (Rome 1767-68), and also in the grand old 'Monumenti dell' Instituto,' the serial issue of which was but recently suppressed through an acute access of *furore Teutonicus* that suddenly made itself felt in Berlin. The superb volumes of heliotype plates from choice antique statuary, engraved in the very finest style of mechanical reproduction by the firm of Dujardin, and edited by Rayet under the title, 'Monuments de l'art antique,' are well known to book-lovers. Yet Rayet is in his turn to be eclipsed by Brunn's new undertaking, 'Monuments of Greek and Roman Sculpture.'

Perhaps it was the deterrent price of this last work, which is now in progress of issue (at \$5.00 a number, or \$400 complete, in case the price is not raised), that suggested what a field there might be for a rival on a more modest scale, if Baumeister's 'Monuments' can fitly be called so. Both collections are, in fact, the outcome of an intelligently culled opportunity, being based on the recent advances made in the science and art of photographic reproduction. In the 'Monuments of Ancient Sculpture,' as for Rayet's nearly synonymous work, the heliotype process is employed throughout. The twenty-four hundred plates and inset figures that furnish forth the copious illustration of the present work, are mainly distributed according to whether a photograph from the original *monument* or a standard line engraving is taken for archetype) between the recently invented wire-net and the long-familiar etched-zinc processes. Both methods of reproduction seem almost providentially designed for the purposes of an archaeological reference-book like the present dictionary. By the aid of them, the publishers have harvested in, for the benefit of even the least affluent of classical scholars and teachers, a wealth of material heretofore accessible only to the wealthiest of well-circumstanced amateurs, if, indeed, to these; for how many dispose of such a treasury of archaeological publications as the Bavarian State Library, or have at hand so rich or so carefully accumulated a cabinet of photographs from the antique as that attached to the Chair

of Classical Archaeology in the University of Munich, and slowly collected by Professor Brunn? These two sources have been lavishly drawn upon in the formation of the magnificent store of capital cuts, equally remarkable for the elegance of their execution and for the absolute faithfulness with which they render their originals, that distinguishes the 'Denkmäler.'

Not a small proportion of the works of ancient sculpture made accessible in these trustworthy engravings are published for the first time altogether, or for the first time with any approach to veracity. Some have been so distorted in the ordinary trade-cuts one groans to meet again and again, in manual after manual, that it is like breathing the freshness of the marble itself to let the eye repose on the nicely graded shading of an unaltered presentation. Here, to open at random near the beginning of Volume I of the 'Denkmäler,' is the sepulchral stele of our old friend Aristion, "the soldier of Marathon," as the Greek photograph dealers persist in calling him, although he more probably served in the body-guard of the Peisistratida. Much cited as this relief has been, both on account of its vestiges of a festive coloring and because it is the earliest signed work by an Athenian master that we possess, it has remained badly known. In Figure 358 we can at last see it as it is without having to go to Athens; even the painted portion of Aristokles' design is clearly visible. How interesting to compare with this partly colored low-relief the entirely painted specimen portrayed in Figure 935. Here there is no relief at all, nothing but a flat marble slab, on which Lyseas, the dead man, appears delineated in graven outlines, which were filled out, as may be tolerably discerned even in the engraving, with red, white, green, black, etc. Perhaps the process is a little better suited to the rendering of the sharply contrasted lights and shades of sculptured drapery than for the subtler surface modelling of the nude. It is sufficient to compare two fair types of the best that can be achieved in this style of illustrations. Figure 1,549 gives us the Louvre torso of Praxiteles' "Resting Satyr" (the "Marble Faun" of Hawthorne's story) in a form on which the most extreme nicety of execution has been aimed at, owing to Brunn's recent identification of this piece as the master's original work; Figure 1,530 is a full-page plate, after a fine photograph from the original, of the famous "Sleeping Ariadne" of the Vatican. The pictorial effectiveness of the latter cut, of which the netted shading is relatively coarse, far exceeds that of the one representing the Satyr.

When the process is pressed into service for polychrome work, it proves an artistic failure. Plate xlvii, in illustration of that much-debated subject, the polychromy of ancient statuary, shows us a Pompeian statue of Venus in the exact coloring of the original. The goddess has yellow hair, blue eyes, and a body the tint of which a herald would blazon as *proper*, whereas the prudish might see more propriety in the white, yellow, and blue coloring of the gown that chastely enwraps her nether limbs. The genuine chromo-lithograph, as employed elsewhere in the 'Denkmäler,' is far more pleasing to the unsophisticated eye. Plate xlvi puts before us an architectural piece, a corner of a Doric temple, restored in its pristine glory of terra-cotta incrustations and gay coloring, and detached in bold perspective against the cheering blue of a Grecian summer sky. A three o'clock sun throws a sharply defined shadow of the cornice across the whole breadth of the blue triglyphs and white metopes of the entablature; the eye, dazzled by

the sunlight reflected from the great blocks of the architrave, reverts to the pleasant polychrome adournment above and below with a sense of relief and rest. One has, as it were, spent a minute in the sixth century B.C., thanks to an eight-color chromo measuring thirteen inches by nine. It is a pity no better specimen of colored sculpture could have been given than the above mentioned Venus, which, whether in the original or in the reproduction, is certainly not very remarkable on the score of art.

The general scheme of collaboration embraces contributions from some two dozen approved connoisseurs. Their names alone are a sufficient guaranty of the high level maintained. Arnold treats of Scenic Antiquities; Assmann of Nautical Antiquities; Blümner of Private Antiquities, including Agriculture and the Arts; Deecke of the Alphabet and Etruscan matters; Von Jan of Music and Musical Instruments, etc., etc. Perhaps as noteworthy a one as any among the single articles is that on Olympia, by Professor Flasch of Erlangen. In ninety-two pages of close print he recounts the history of the site, of the games, and of the German excavation of the Altis, and discusses the results of the latter as they appear embodied in the buildings and statuary brought to light. Flasch assigns the sculptures from the pediments of the temple of Zeus to the Attic school, without pretending to fortify his position by argument. This is a curious return to the theory originated in the old pre-Olympian days by Brunn, who has since discarded it as untenable, and now connects the artists Paionios and Alkamenes, whose actual works were unearthed at Olympia, rather with the artistic tendencies prevalent in Northern Greece, the home, as it happens, of both men. In view of the altogether antipodal character subsisting between the Olympian sculptures in question and the style of the early Attic school, as exemplified in the recent discoveries on the Acropolis, we need not wonder much to see Flasch soon after advocating the *Secento* nonsense of ascribing the whole plastic decoration of the Olympian temple to the invention, if not the material execution, of Pheidias himself. It is difficult to understand this mania for systematically degrading artists whom their contemporaries at least assigned to the very first rank, to the position of mere journeymen. Flasch himself ranks Paionios exceedingly high. Some sentences in his appreciation of the famous Winged Victory have the ring of Winckelmann's own.

The contributions of Flasch on Olympia, Milchhäuser on Mykenai, and Trenzelberg on Pergamon, taken together with the numerous articles by the editor on the Mythology of Art, by Julius on Ancient Architecture, by Julius and Waldstein on Sculpture, and by Von Rohden on Painting, if published separately, would constitute one of the most satisfactory manuals of the history of ancient art yet published. The alphabetic arrangement presupposes some acquaintance with the names of ancient artists as associated with their works; but the cuts themselves serve as a convenient key in turning the leaves, as one involuntarily does a great deal, and that with much gain of information as well as pleasure. Sometimes the juxtapositions are a little curious. A lady pupil of the writer was a whit abashed, on opening Volume I., some days ago, at the heading "Costume (Greek)," to be confronted by a full-length cut of the Venus de Medicis, this statue having been inserted under the name of its reputed author, Cleomenes.

One of the last issues to hand, No. 58, brings an exhaustive treatise and a superb series of il-

lustrations relating to the topic of "Triumphal Arches." The last of the great articles is that on "Vasenkunde," by Von Rohden. Painted vases by Attic masters of the sixth, fifth, and fourth centuries B.C. already enjoy an esteem in archaeological circles greater than is accorded to marbles of the period of feebleness, dependence, and debasement. Such a vase as that of Erginos the potter, and Aristophanes the painter, depicted in Figure 637, offers an example of draughtsmanship and figure composition Pheidias himself could not outdo. Examples of this art are frequent in the *Monuments*, and will do much to bring the general public round to the point of view occupied by the trained expert. It is a pleasant duty, now that the completion of the serial issue is in sight, to congratulate both publishers and editors in behalf of the numerous American scholars whose situation is so nearly akin to that of the average *Gymnasialassistent* that the "Monuments of Classical Antiquity" will be welcomed by them as a real boon. As a Government, we shall of course continue to fight the importation of educational works like this by a blackmail tax of twenty-five per cent.

The Complete Angler; or, the Contemplative Man's Recreations of Izaak Walton and Charles Cotton. Edited by John Major. London: J. C. Nimmo; New York: G. E. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

The first of Major's editions of Walton was published in 1823, and marked the period in which this classic began a greatly increased popularity and circulation. A second was published in 1841, and a third in 1855, followed by others up to 1882, two or three of which were American editions. Of these, the one of 1841, which we believe was the last of those issued under Major's superintendence, was a great improvement on its predecessors in print and illustration, the work of Mr. Creswick and the woodcuts of fish being especially good, as are also the designs of Absolon. The etchings by Tourrier in the volume under notice, which replace the earlier Absolons, are far inferior in design and treatment.

As an appendix to the edition of "1889," and bound with it, is "The Practical Fly Fisher, more particularly for Gravelling or Under," by John Jackson of Tanfield Mill. This contains 10 plates of natural and artificial flies, comprising 120 examples, colored by hand, and exceedingly interesting to the angler.

The difference to the reader, as compared with the collector, between the various Waltonian editions is in the "introductory essay" or preface which different editors have fallen into the fashion of publishing. Dr. Bethune has distinguished himself by having written the best of all these—a thoroughly just, appreciative, and brilliant setting for his editions—and Mr. Major has done the very worst. Of it Mr. Westwood, in his "Chronicle of the Compleat Angler," says: "The writer, though worthy and inoffensive, was vain, vulgar, and silly, and his essay is precisely what we should expect from a shopkeeper turned man of letters for the nonce. It is, in fact, a farrago of twaddle from end to end," etc., etc. In attempting to gloss over Walton's humble origin, Mr. Major has also aroused the indignation of Dr. Bethune, who, in his "Bibliography of the Complete Angler," devotes a page of severe rebuke to the unfortunate publisher. The ideal edition of Walton will be one with the illustrations of the Pickering of 1856, and the imprint let us, as Americans, say of De Vinne, and the preface of Dr. Bethune.

Leibnitz's New Essays concerning the Human Understanding. By John Dewey, Ph.D. 12mo, pp. 272. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1888.

PROF. DEWEY has written one of the clearest and most comprehensible of the books in the philosophic series in which it appears, and of which it is the seventh. In this respect he has the advantage of those who have preceded him. But it is due rather to the system with which he is dealing than to any prolixities on the part of the writer to keep shy of Kantian and post-Kantian philosophy, for he evidently judges of his subject from the position of transcendentalism. Leibnitz wrote before German philosophy had become encrusted in its deliveries, and hence was less afflicted with the curse of obscurity than Kant and Hegel. It is fortunate, therefore, for Prof. Dewey that his exposition offers fewer obstacles to the general reader than would have been the case had he been obliged to make concessions to the physiologics of his author, for both his reputation and his usefulness will be helped by the intelligible character of his work, and the growing philosophical community in America may congratulate itself upon this additional contribution to its libraries.

There is one important difference between this and the other volumes in the same series. They are purely expository, with as little of the historical method as it is possible to get along with. Prof. Dewey, on the other hand, has done as much historic-critical as expository work in this volume, and we suspect that in so doing he has deviated in some degree from the original purpose of the series. This departure, if it be such, has certainly abridged his treatment of special topics in Leibnitz's philosophy, notably the crucial metaphysical conception upon which it turns, namely, the doctrine of monism. Besides, it has made him read Leibnitz with the eyes of Hume, and Leibnitz with the eyes of Kant. Soden has we observed such a Kantian color given to the interpretation of Leibnitz, and we think more than it will bear, although it is not to be denied that the distance between them is very slight, or that the revolt of Kant against "dogmatism" did not prevent him from being largely influenced by Leibnitzian conceptions. But it is possible to make Leibnitz more of a Kantian than he really is, and some of Prof. Dewey's exposition is open to the objection that it seems to do this very thing.

There is a more important criticism to be made. The writer is a strong advocate of idealism and as strong an opponent of materialism. He assumes a complete antithesis between these two theories, and expects the defense or proof of the one to be the necessary refutation of the other. This is legitimate enough from the position of Cartesian dualism, to which, in a modified form, Leibnitz still adhered. For idealism in such a philosophy was intended to combat the materialism which resulted from Locke's views of sensation, and hence it came to coincide with the spiritual as opposed to the mechanical side of Cartesianism. But now that monism, as opposed to dualism, has become the accepted creed, owing to the influence of Kant and modern science, can the antithesis to which we have referred be maintained any longer? Can idealism and materialism be opposed to each other except upon the assumption of dualism? Monism, in most cases at least, seems to be identical with either materialism or pantheism, and in both is fatal to the very belief which Cartesian dualism, with its idealistic position, was designed to establish. Hence we really gain nothing when

we employ language which will not bear examination from the new standpoint, and which has nothing but historical associations to commend it. There is a serious problem here, and we express the hope that Prof. Dewey may take it up some time, and, if possible, solve it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Alden, Mrs. G. R. *The Pansy; Stories of Child Life at Home and Abroad and of Modern and Ancient History.* Illustrat. d. Boston: D. Lothrop Co., \$1.25.
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 Bradlee, C. D. *Sermons for All Soots.* Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.
 Champney, Elizabeth W. *Three Vassar Girls in France: A Story of the Siege of Paris.* Boston: Estes & Lauriat, \$1.50.
 Chester, J. *Ruth, the Christian Scientist; or, The New Hygeia.* Boston: H. H. Carter & Karrick.
 Christie, R. *Maxims and Phrases of All Ages.* 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons, \$5.
 Collier's Great Events of History. New ed. T. Nelson & Sons, \$1.25.
 Colson, F. H. *Stories and Legends: A First Greek Reader.* Macmillan & Co., 75 cents.
 Comstock, Prof. J. H. *An Introduction to Entomology, Part I. Ithaca: The Author.* \$2.
 Croly, G. *Glimpses of the Future: Suggestions as to the Drift of Things.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, \$1.
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 Fowler, J. A. *History of Insurance in Philadelphia for Two Centuries: 1683-1882.* Philadelphia: Review Publishing Co.
 Freeman, A. C. *The American State Reports, Decided in the Courts of Last Resort of the Several States, Vols. I. and II.* San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co., \$4 per volume.
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